



*McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology*

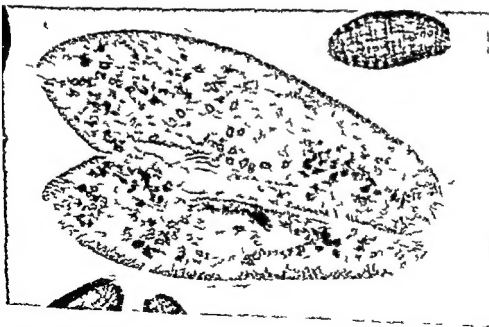


# *of Science and Technology*

AN INTERNATIONAL REFERENCE WORK

IN FIFTEEN VOLUMES INCLUDING AN INDEX

VOLUME 7 IBE LYT





# *McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia*

**McGRAW HILL BOOK COMPANY INC**

**NEW YORK CHICAGO SAN FRANCISCO DALLAS TORONTO LONDON**



# Suggestions to the Readers

Th l pla f th E cl p e l a e pl e l  
h re f r t f l t a t t

The s by i m t t f t e r u d e p l u s o r  
b h f d t i n l o v o g a n e l  
i m t e l l y a e l t l p r o d e a t a l  
r e a f i h f i l d i a n m b e f p r t e a t l  
l p h b e t l l y a a e d e t m n l l y n  
a l m e p e c f i a p e t

C r f e n g d t h e r l f m t t e r a l  
a r t f t t h t h r u l t l h t h l j c t  
h l d n l f m t t s r t c l e n e  
h l l y p l l p h f t h e b y e t T l e  
r f t e e l t t 0000 f t l e a e  
p r o t e l n m l e c l l l t s t t t h c a n b e  
l d f n f t h e o r f r s  
a l m f l l a f E L E T R C A L E N I V E F  
t h h E L E C T R I C S a n l V A C U U M T U B E t  
E L E C T R O I V L I E E L E C T R O N E I O V  
O f f l t h f f t h e  
e l l d b e l l t E L E C T R O N P O W E R S Y S T E S  
T r a n s m i t t e r E L E C T R O M A G N E T I C a v e a l

I l l h t l e b e e n w i t h a d f t f  
t h t t l t h t a t t p a n l r e e L l l  
l t f t f i t h l l n e d u t  
M t f t h a t l e s a f t t h s t a t m t g n t  
n l m p l e x d d t l i o n d a t A  
t t l f t p e e d n l f s h  
l t a d j m n d e t a t

Th l n l V i m 15 h l l b e h d t  
l t t h d u f t o p e d n t h F n  
l p e l b t n t g v n s p o t t i

E r o p f i m l a d r d r n t h p l t a n d  
m a l k i m l l t u e d p a r a t r l V l a  
f t h m m m f m l e e a l p e c  
e d t h f t d a c l o n  
e p t a t l t t n n t i f i m m n  
m

Th d t l l s d l t r l l n  
t h f l l E l m e n t n p l  
f n t l e d l y a e y l t t y

e p l e of d o n a f r i n t a n l t r f n r a  
t l e t r s m t e l e t r l e t r a l  
l a t e l t p t n n t r a t e l w i t h e l e t r t v  
l u t n t h t j p e t r c l a r i r l a  
f a m p l e e l e t r a l e o d e l e t r a l e e

W r d e d t t l r w l e r e p u l l e g r n  
i n t h e c u l a t p e r m i n t t a l p h e t e  
a e r t t t l e a l p h a b e t e d l y w r d a l  
n t b l l e r f m p l

**Earth sciences**

**Earth tides**

**Earthmover**

**Earthquake**

A o t e d a p r e l e a e r i u l  
h j u l l i l

**Mercury (element)**

**Mercury (planet)**

**Mercury battery**

r

**Circuit electronic**

**Circuit breaker**

I l p h e d t m a l p l a b e t e l a l e w l  
f r e n g l

**Animal virus**

**Animal feed composition**

M t o f t l l r t l s t n l l l f h  
t f u l f f r l t f r m a t n F  
l l t a l b l l p l c l t t n t h r e l r l l d  
f t l l l a r t l e (a n l a t l l t l e  
f s t h e t c l ) B l l a p l p l t  
a t t h d o f t l r t m a t l n l f  
m a j o t o n n l a t l

A l t f n t a l n l n m e f t h e n t l t t  
t h E l p e l t b e f l n l o h m e l o T t  
l e l l p m t q u k l t f a t o f t l t  
a t a f t e r a t l l m m l t l l l l t  
l t a o l l t f e n c l p l a n t b u t r w t l  
t l f l l t d t h t u l s f a t e l e e h l a  
t t r f t h E n l p l

(LEFT) Photomicrograph of glass crystals (Bureau of Standards) (RIGHT) *Paramecium caudatum* in conjugation (photograph by R. Vishniac)

McGRAW HILL ENCYCLOPEDIA OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY  
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Library of Congress Catalog Number 60-11000

*McGraw-Hill Encyclopedia of Science and Technology*



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10

The ear-  
the Himalay  
all f wh h  
and fo t phy h  
ad s S = ARTIODACTYL Go T

A n me ppl d to erta n lo g l gged he nlike  
b d b lo ng t th fam l s C o d a d  
Th r k orn th dae furthe b r a t i ed by d wa  
r ved hlls d h ghly m gar s h b ts. Th  
ood ib My t mernc f th outh r  
Co t l Plan f the United State r k be  
l g t the f mly C o dae nd d st n  
h d f m l t ue h by the l k of fe thers  
n th d ft a tterre i l feed r  
Th tr b e f e d r ne hll w w te n  
both l d a d m habuat e t ng f h s  
f g n k d er tace n They n t m olo



Th wh e-l ed g! y b P! g d h h l gth t  
26 m (F m E L P l m E ldb k f N t 7H st ry  
McG -H) 1949)

ni s omet mes n very l rge number in cypres  
 d other swamp tree Two spe ies are thern  
 found ■ marly in Fl rida the ar the white  
 ba E do mus alb s nd the European gl sy  
 ibi Pl gadis falci ellus The white fa ed gl y  
 ibi P chiu occurs fr m O egon outhward into  
 T xas nd M xic The last two pe ie are br n  
 c l d th thers white See Cico uron irs  
 [JDB]

A food prep d f m a frozen mxt r of m lk  
products a d fl ring made mooth by t rring  
during fr ezing Comm r al ice cream ar es in  
c mp st i dependi g r al y on t ate law The  
us al fat c ntent is 10-14% and the nonfat milk  
old a e ag bout 105% Sweet e s s pplied  
by c e or beet suga (ucr e) t the amo i  
f 15% This is supplemented with r m or  
(dextr e) nd m i up To prot ct ice cr m  
ag i st heat h cks duri g m k et ng 02-04%  
f lloidal m ter al su h a gel t n or egetable  
g m s added a ll a 01-02% of an em l fie  
chasm no r d i g lce ide

Ice cream manufacture Commercial ice cream is always made from pasteurized and homogenized milk. Both batch and continuous freezers are used. Usually the holding system (68-71°F) for 30 min) for pasteurization is employed. The high temperature short time treatments that make possible the slow web guiding by means of the lag reels by 1908. In using such methods, the temperature is high, 110°F with a few seconds. The higher temperature is possible due to the whey proteins and a smooth texture in the milk products.

At fi t the f e e z g wa done i bat h machi e  
b t c n t n u s fr e a n g ha a l m st n u e l y r  
p l c d the l m th d Th o t i n u e p r  
t n i m f i e n t and p o d u e n i e c r a m  
w i t h a m t h r t e x t a d b d y C o n t n u o s  
f r e e s v r y n c p a c t y f r m 85 t o 300 g a l p e r  
h u N o m o s l a o e a d d e d t i c e r a m t h  
m t e m m s v l l a C h l t r w b r r y  
b t t e r p e c a n p h e c f f d d y l o a r e  
p p u l a r

D r g t e f e n g p r s a r s i n c p o r a t d  
t t h c e m m u x T h s t e r m d e r n A  
100<sup>er</sup> e r r n m e n s t h t t h e o l m o f t h e m x  
h b e d o b l d t h e w h r p e u n t l u m e  
l i b e h a l e d S o m t t l i m t t h m a x m u m



overrun to 100% other place a legal minimum on the weight of the milk solids contained in a unit volume of the ice cream. Ice cream is hardened by passing it through freezing tunnel or by placing it in low temperature ( $-28.9^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) room where the air is usually circulated to facilitate heat transfer.

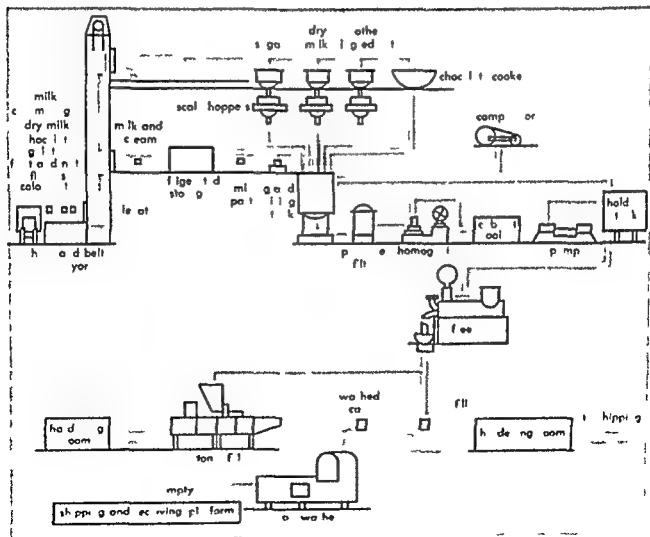
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**Ice milk.** In the period prior to World War II considerable interest was shown by consumer in a low fat frozen product which came to be called ice milk. The product varies in fat content from 3% in nonfat milk solids from 11-14% and in sugar

from 12-15%. It is sold either hard in the same manner as ice cream or is soft directly from the freezer. The lower fat and higher protein content of ice milk appeal to the diet-conscious consumer and the relatively lower price is an added feature. [P. 17]

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Flow sheet of ice cream manufacture. U.S. Food and Drug Administration. Office of Dairy Products, Food Technology. March 1937.

Tabl 1 P r s i t c e of Salmonella typhosa  
(Bact m typhos m) l e t r e m

T m f t e e g f	Typ h d b u t a
t a k g a m p l d y	x 10 p e m l
F e l l y f r o	51 000
5	10 000
0	0
101	900
165	610
60	7
31	1
544	13
y r s	6

W J P r u l n d J M B V b l t y f B a c  
k u n t p h o m e r m J B t o l l l e m y 2 2 6

f r m t h e d t o f W J P u c h a a d J M B r a n o n  
n t b l e f (a b d g e d)

Kinds of microorganisms A wide a e t y of m  
e o o g m e l d g t e p t c o c i m i r o c o c i  
f r m b a t e s p r f o r m t y e s i s n d m o l d  
m a i b e f n d V l t i n o f p e c i e b y f e z n g  
t a k e p l a e h g o w l a n d o n l y l w d e t r u u o n  
f m e o o g m i t h e f i n a l p d t w l l o c c r  
T h e f t h e f l i s e a m e n i s o f r g a n  
m r v g p t e u z a t n a c o r p o r t e d b y  
n i a m h i W i t h e l l n n t r l l d a n t a t o  
d r i n g s o d t p l a t c u t m a y b e s l o w a s a  
f w t h u a n d w i t h a l e s m e t h o d t h e y m a y b  
i t h m l l n s h r m l l y a s l i g h t n e r a f t h  
b a t e a l e t t k s p l e c d u r i n g m n s a t u r  
e s p e l l y t i e h o m o e a t t n a d f r e z n g d u e  
t t h b k i g u p f l u m p s f b a c t e a f e e  
T a b l 2 A p l t e c o a n t l o w 100 000 p e r m l l  
l i e r g r a l l y r g a d e d a r e p l a b l f o m t h  
a t a r y p o t f i w

Hygienic measures These include pr per pas  
t u z a t n o f t h m x n d n d q a l s a n i t z i n g o f  
q p m e n t P s t u r z a t n m u t b e m r e m t s e  
t h m s t h a n w i t h m i l k b e e n c r e a s d  
m l k l d p t t m r o o g a m t o o m e d e g r e e  
A b t 68 C f r 30 m i n r 79 C i 25 c r e r a p  
p l e d t o b i E n t m r k o f a l t y l t h u  
w v a l l p a t h o g e n s k i l l e d a n d t o t l b e t a l  
u n t s o f 10 000 o f p g r m u a l l y  
a h e d h g h e o u n t s t i e p a t u z a t i o n r e  
d t t h m d o g a n m T h o u r c f t h e e  
r g n m a d e q s t e l y c l e e d f a m r p l a n t  
e q u p t S t z g i q p m t i a h e t e d b y

T b l 2 E f f e c t o f l o u s a t p i m u t c h u r e  
o n t r a d p l t o u t o f i c m

c f m f	U p e r s e d p e r p a r t (l m e s)	S p e s e d p e r r a t i (l m e s)
B e f e r p a t i n	10	5 566
B e f e r h o m o g e n i s	10	748
A f h o m o g e n i s	00	5
A f m s	39 311	37 381
A f f e e	3 4300	33
A f f e e	4 33	58 136
A f h r i	390	39 17

V l O n o n n A C k y T h b a t i r l o c o t i f  
k e r e m r e p o t f p r i m t a b a t i r l o c o t r o l  
c o m m e r c i l p l a s J D o r y S e 3 315 19

c l e a n i n g a n d s t e r i l i z i n g o p e r a t i o n w i t h l e a t  
c h e m c a l s

Bacteriological control For determining hygi  
e m i c q u a l i t y o f i c e c r e a m t h e l a b o r a t o r y t e s t s u s e d  
a r e s i m i l a r t o t h s e e m p l y e d f o r m l k ( s e e M i l k )  
O f t h e s e t h e s t a n d a r d p l a t e c o u n t a n d t h e r e f o r  
c o l f o r m b a c t e r i a h a v e f u n d w d e s p r e a d a p p l i c a  
t i o n S e e M I C R O B I O L O G I C A L M E T H O D S

[J W R]

Bibliography G D Turban W P H Tracy a d  
L A Raffelt The Ice Cream Industry 2d ed  
1947

## Ice field (Eisstromnetz)

A network of interconnected glaciers or ice  
stream w t h m m o n s u r c e a r e a o r a r e a s i n c o n  
t a t t o i c e b e e t s a n d i c e c a p s T h e G e r m a n w o r d  
E i s t r o m n e t z t r n l a t e s l i t e r a l l y t o i c e s t r e a m n e t  
T h e t e r m g e n e r a l l y i s u s e d f o r g l a c i a l s y t e m s o f  
m o d e r a t e s i z e ( s u c h a s l e s t h a n 3000 m l e a ) a d  
s m o t a p p l i c a b l e t m u n t a i n o u s r e g i o n B e n g  
g e r a l l y a s o c i a t e d w i t h t e r r a n e o f s u b s t a n t i a l  
r e l e f c o h e l d g l a c i e s a r e m a i s t l y o f t h e b o a d  
b s n c i r c u a n d m o u n t a i n a l t y t y p e T h u s d i f  
f e r e n t c o n d i t i o n s o f a n i c f i e l d a r e o f t e n s e p a r a t e d  
b y l i n e a r r a g e b d r o k r i d g e s a n d n u a t a k s

Contrast with ice sheet An i c h e e t i s a b r o a d  
s k e l i k e g l a c i a l m a s s w i t h a r e l a t i v e l y f l a t s u r f a c e  
d g e n t l e e l f e e s h e e t s a r e n o t c o n f i n e d r  
c n t r o l l d b y a l l y t o p g a p h y a n d t h e y u a l l y  
c e r b t d t p g a p h i c f e a t r e s s u c h a s a c o n t i  
n e n t a l p l a t e a u ( f o r e x a m p l e m u c h o f t h e A n t a r c  
t i c h e e t ) o r a l o w l a d e p l a r a c h p e l a g o ( s u c h  
a s t h G r n l a d c e s h e e t ) A l t h o u g h g e n e r a l l y  
e h e e t a r e o f e y l a r g d i m e n s i o n i n s o m e r e  
g o s m l l r a t h e r f l a t c b o d i e h a v e b e e n c a l l e d  
i c e s h e e t s b e a e t h e y a r t h n e d r e m n a n t s o f  
n e e l a g e m a s s e s o f t h e l m S m a l l i c e s h e e t s  
n d e n e f i e l d a r m t i m s s i c o r r e s p o n d i n g l y  
f e r r d t y c a s t a l r l a y o v e r a s a p  
v e n t h u g h t h e i m f i g u r t i o s h a v e b e e n w e l l  
h r a c t r i z d

Contrast with ice cap I c e c a p a r e p r o p l y d e  
f i n d a d m e l k e g l a c i a l m a s s u a l l y a t h i g h  
e l v a t i o n T h e y m a y f o r e x a m p l e c o m p r t h e  
c e n a l n o h m t a r a f a n i c f i e l d a t t h e c r e a t  
o f m u n t a n r a g e s t h e y m a y s t a n d i n g l a t e d  
p o t i o n s a s s e p a r a t e g l a c i a l m a s s t h e m s l e a s  
T h l a t t e r t y p e s h a r a c t e r i z e d b y a d i n t e n t l y c o n  
v e r s i o n i n d m b o r d o f m u t i g u o u s g l a c i  
l p e s w i t h r e l a t i v e l y r e g l a r m a g s n o t d i s t r i b u t e d  
b y m i s t a l l e y s a b u t m n t r d g e s

Similarities and gradations T h e a r e a l l g a  
d e t e r m i n e d b y t h e f i e l d s a t t h e s h e e t s  
O c e a p o d l t i m e m o r p h o g e n e t i s a d a t a l  
e q u e m a y a l s o d l p n a y n e r e g i o n M a  
j a h e e t f o r m p l e p r b a b l y o r i g i n t  
f m t h e t h k n o w n a d x p a n s n l e f e l d a d  
t h a l s n e c o f b o d e r i n g p e d m n t g l a c i e r s  
C a n e l y c e f i e l d s c a n d e l o p t h r o u g h t h e n  
i g n d e i r c t i o n o f a l a r g e h t o c o r r i n g  
t a b o u t r a S G L A C I A T E D T E R R A N E  
G L A C I E R

[M M M]

or run to 100° other place a legal minimum on the weight of the milk solid contained in a unit volume of the ice cream. Ice cream is hardened by passing it through freezing tunnel or by placing it in low temperature (-89° C) room where the air is usually circulated to facilitate heat transfer.

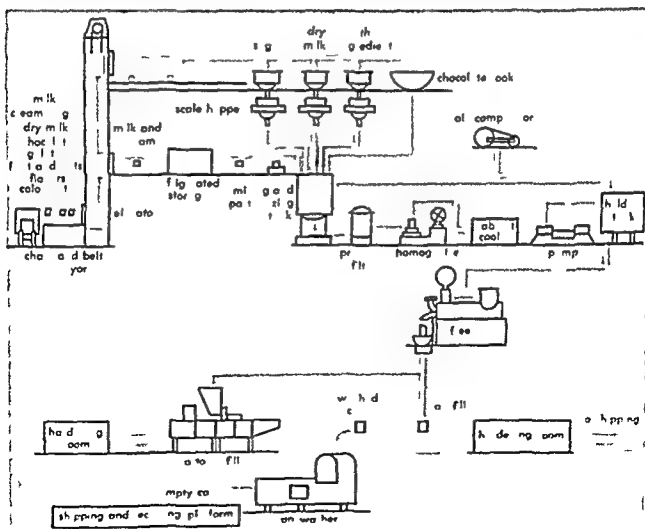
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get on important in the manufacture of artificial ice in refrigerating plants and data. The National Association of Ice Industries reported that U.S. production in 1975 was 239,550 tons (valued at \$223,268,067) compared to 3,233,966 tons in 1953. Bulk ice production has been falling since the start of almost 2,000,000 tons a year as a mechanical efficiency makes sufficient production in the market. The domestic market practically held with development of the automatic hold refrigerator.

Most commonly in galvanized sheet that are partially immersed in brine solution (Fig. 1). Brine is made of sodium chloride or calcium chloride. The brine is cooled by ammonia or the refrigerant in the pipes or brine coils submerged in the brine tank. The coils are filled with raw water heated with refrigerant. Initially, the brine is large and impure. The water is usually purified. Cold brine is circulated. The ice is separated from the water. Commercial ice is 300- to 400-lb blocks for which the freezing time with brine at 12°F from 38 to 44 hours. Freezing time depends largely on the thickness of the ice and the brine temperature. In the plant, the ice is carried in groups of mesh harvesters. A traveling crane picks up the ice and transports it to a dump where the ice is loaded on a flatbed car. The empty cars are filled with fresh water and returned to the tank by the crane.

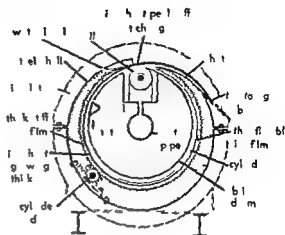


Fig. 2. Cross-section of a mechanical ice-making machine.

If the ice is required, the water in each can must be agitated with a during freezing. The water is pumped to the brine tank. The water must be cooled to 32°F before freezing can start. The capacity of the system is about 16 tons of refrigerant. It is required to make 1 ton of ice with the raw water at 40°F.

The manufacturer of the 15-hr. block or cube machine by the American Ice Machine Co. (Fig. 2) has taken over the production of the commercial market in recent years. Also, small flexible automatic self-contained cube and block machines have been developed for use in restaurants, hotels, and hospitals.

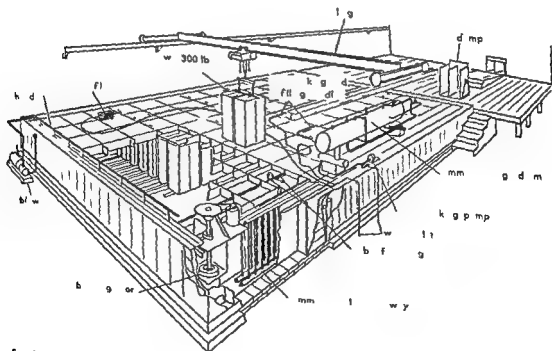


Fig. 1. Typical ice plant layout (with gravity pump and motor).

## Ice island

Major studies of floating ice in the Arctic Ocean from 100 to 200 ft thick irregular in shape and from a few square mile to 300 square miles in area. Ice islands originate in the landfast ice along the high latitude northern shores of the Canadian archipelago and Greenland. The unbroken appearance of the island is in great contrast to the surrounding pack ice which normally almost completely cover the Arctic Ocean and which attain a maximum thickness of only 20 ft. It was the unbroken appearance and the elevation of the island above the pack ice that first attracted the attention of the crew of US Air Force weather reconnaissance planes in 1946 (Fig. 1). Since that time over 80 ice islands have been observed, all but a half dozen or so being in the numerous lav and trail of the Canadian archipelago.

**Character and formation.** Ice islands are characterized by (1) absence of pre-ice ridge such as are found in the pack ice, (2) long hill with drainage channels most evident in summer when they are filled with meltwater, and (3) the presence of dust and dirt layer in the ice as well as occasional rock on the surface and remnant of plant and animal material which testify to close proximity to land at some time.

An ice shelf (a floating body of landfast ice) 60 miles by 10 miles in area is located between McClure and Markham Bay on Northern Ellesmere Island. It has been quite extensively studied and has been found to be similar in all respects to the ice island. In August 1947 an aerial photograph was obtained of the eastern end of this shelf with a large piece of ice nearly which had broken off. This piece later moved out into the Arctic Ocean to become a floating ice island. Other large portions are melting from the shelf since it was first visited by C. S. Nares in 1856 and R. F. Leary in 1908.

The ice island probably break from the shelf during year of generally warm Arctic climate such as the period 1200-1230. The age is period of growth of the landfast ice along the eastern

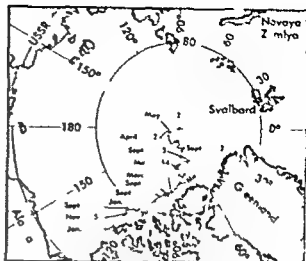


Fig. 2 Drift of Fletcher's Ice Island T-3 during its period of occupancy (USAF Cambridge Research Center, Mass.)

into ice a thick ice island can be measured in hundred of year and depend on the general climatic condition.

**Scientific endeavor.** In March 1955 a landing was made on one of the ice islands designated T-3 (T for radar target) or Fletcher's Ice Island for C. I. O. Fletcher who was in charge of the first operation there. This island was occupied from March 1955 to May 1955, April 1955 to September 1955 and continuously in early 1955. In 1959 a landing was also made on T-1 the first island discovered and largest of the known ice islands, but no permanent facilities were installed. In 1955 the USSR located one of its North Pole station on what is evidently one of the ice islands.

The ice islands are excellent platforms for Arctic scientific study. Once away from the land as the island is moved at speed up to 10 miles per day by the wind in an erratic current that takes them clockwise around the Arctic by way from Ellesmere Island toward the eastern tip of Alaska and eastern Siberia and from there westward to the (Fig. 2). From this area they may melt back to Ellesmere forming a circular path of 10,000 or 30,000 miles which is completed in 15 years or they may melt into the polar area with the Arctic Ocean in a number of ways (1) Greenland Sea in which a slow melting continues and eventually is integrated. The sample of Fletcher's Island is extended by far Arctic climate meteorological and generally good geomagnetic and physical measurements.

**Photography.** H. Landberg (ed.) 1955. *Photography of the Arctic*. U.S. Navy, Washington, D.C. 1955. 100 pp. 100 illustrations. 100 illustrations.

## Ice manufacture

Commercial production of ice for water supply is from meltwater of snow and ice. The process is simple and is carried out in a number of ways.



Fig. 1 US Air Force photograph of Ice Island T-3 (Official photograph USAF Cambridge Research Center, Mass.)

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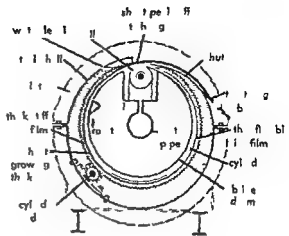


Fig 2 C mm i f l k e m o h e

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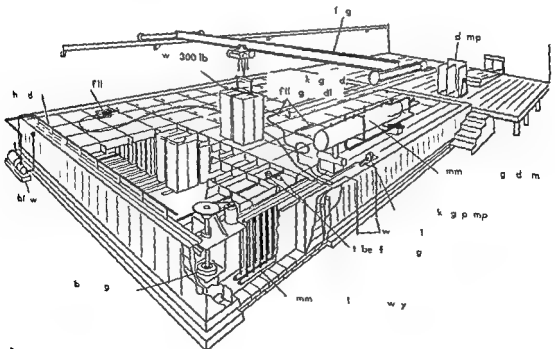


Fig 1 Typ 1 ic pl (W r f h g t P m p d M h r y C p)



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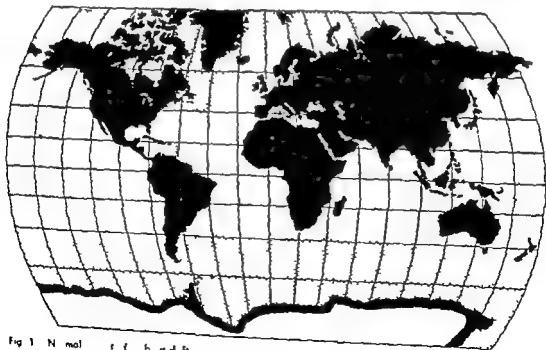


Fig 1 N mal r f b g d ft



Ice is also frozen artificially in a flat horizontal sheet for ice skating. Such skating rink may be in door or outdoor permanent or portable. The rink floor is covered with pipe coils through which cold brine is circulated and over which water is sprayed until a frozen sheet  $\frac{1}{2}$  to  $\frac{3}{4}$  in thick is obtained. The brine is cooled in brine coolers by a refrigerant such as ammonia or Freon 12. See REFRIGERATION.

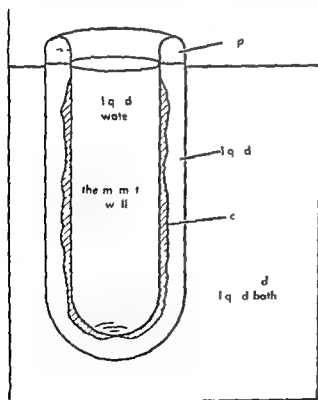
[H M H F]

**Bibliography:** American Society of Heating Refrigerating and Air Conditioning Engineers. ASRE Air Conditioning and Refrigerating Data Book 1956-1959.

## Ice point

The temperature at which liquid and solid water are in equilibrium under atmospheric pressure. The ice point is by far the most important fixed point for defining temperature scales and for calibrating thermometers (see TEMPERATURE). A closely related point is the triple point where liquid, solid and gaseous water are in equilibrium. It is 0.01° higher on the Kelvin scale than the ice point (see TRIPLE POINT). The triple point has gained favor as the primary standard since it can be attained with great accuracy in a simple closed vessel isolated from the atmosphere. Readings are reproducible to about 0.0001 K, but dissolved gases or other foreign matter may raise the error to 0.001° or more.

The triple point apparatus shown in the figure consists of a thermometer well that is filled with liquid water and jacketed by a cavity containing the three phases of water under a pressure of about



Arrangement for determining triple point

0.006 atmosphere. The ice initially deposited by prechilling the well melts during the process of heat transfer from the thermometer. [R A B L]

**Bibliography:** H C Wolfe (ed.) *Temperature Its Measurement and Control in Science and Industry* vol 2 1955.

## Iceberg

A large mass of glacial ice broken off and drifted from parent glaciers or ice shelves along polar sea. Icebergs should be distinguished from polar pack ice which is sea ice or frozen sea water though rafted or hummocked fragments of the latter may resemble small berg. See GLACIER SEA ICE.

**Characteristics and types.** The continental or island icecaps of both Arctic and Antarctic regions produce icebergs where the icecaps extend to the sea in the form of glaciers or ice shelves. The "calving" of a large iceberg is one of nature's greatest spectacles if one considers that a Greenland berg may weigh over 1,000,000 tons and Antarctic bergs are many times larger. The glacial ice of which an iceberg consists is compressed now having a variable specific gravity which averages about 0.89. This results in an above water mass of from one eighth to one tenth of the entire mass. However, pines and peaks of an eroded or weathered berg will result in height to depth ratios of between 1-6 and 1-3. Tritium age experiments with melted Greenland berg ice indicate the bergs may be of the order of 50,000 years old. Minute air bubbles imprisoned in glacial ice impart to bergs a snow white color and cause it to effervesce when immersed. See SEA WATER, TRITIUM.

Icebergs are classified by shape and size. The terms used are arched, blocky, dome, pinnacled, tabular, valley, and weathered for berg descriptions and bergs but and growler for berg fragments ranging smaller than cottage size above water. The life span of an iceberg may be indefinite while the berg remains in cold polar waters eroding only lightly during summer months. But under the influence of ocean current, an iceberg that drifts into warmer water will disintegrate rapidly, its life being measured in weeks in sea temperature between 40-50°F and in days in sea temperature over 50°F. A notable feature of icebergs is their long and distant drift which may carry them into steamship tracks where they become hazards to navigation. The normal extent of iceberg drift is shown by the accompanying world chart (Fig. 1).

**Arctic icebergs.** In the Arctic, icebergs originate chiefly from glaciers along Greenland coast. It is estimated that a total of about 10,000 bergs are calved annually in the Northern Hemisphere of which over 90% are of Greenland origin but only about half of the calve are of such size to enable them to achieve any significant drift. The majority of the latter remain in the Baffin Sea along the west coast of Greenland between the 60° and 80° parallel of latitude. The most productive

# Ichthyosauria

Fish-like animals highly adapted for life in the sea. They were the body form of the early plesiosaurs of tail paddles dorsal fin and bryozoan. They were adapted to the marine environment. They were the body form of the early plesiosaurs of tail paddles dorsal fin and bryozoan. They were adapted to the marine environment.

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A. J. C. Ichthyosaurus, modified from the original by A. S. R. M. Y. R. B. O. P. 1945.

retractile type. They were the body form of the early plesiosaurs of tail paddles dorsal fin and bryozoan. They were adapted to the marine environment.

## Ichthyostegalia

They were the body form of the early plesiosaurs of tail paddles dorsal fin and bryozoan. They were adapted to the marine environment.



They were the body form of the early plesiosaurs of tail paddles dorsal fin and bryozoan. They were adapted to the marine environment.

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## Ictidosa

A few extremely small reptiles (ubiquitous) were the body form of the early plesiosaurs of tail paddles dorsal fin and bryozoan. They were adapted to the marine environment.

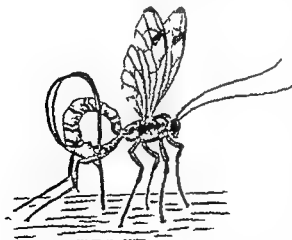


Fig 3 Antarctic ice berg Tabular type berg or ice island is common to all regions of the Antarctic seas. Some of these bergs may reach over 100 miles in length. The U.S. Coast Guard icebreaker Westwind is shown in the foreground.

Antarctic continent. The result is huge tabular bergs (Fig 3) or ice islands several hundred feet high and often over a hundred miles in length which frequent the entire waters of the Antarctic seas. The most active ice berg producing region are the Ross and Filchner ice shelves in the Ross and Weddell seas. The large size of the ice bergs and influence of the Antarctic Circumpolar Current give them an indeterminate life span. When weathered, Antarctic icebergs attain a deep bluish hue of great beauty rarely seen in the Arctic. See ANTARCTIC OCEAN. [R.P.D.]

## Ichneumon

Any member of the insect family Ichneumonidae, order Hymenoptera. Although they are frequently called ichneumon flies, they are actually wasps (see WASP). The ichneumon are a widely distributed and highly successful family. There are over 6000 species in North America. They are parasitic in insects; the larvae of the female deposit her



The illustration is a Megaloptera to (an ichneumon fly) le gith (em le to 174) (From E. L. Palmer Fieldbook of Natural History McGraw-Hill 1949)

egg within the body of the insect or spider host. The mean of her ovipositor which is frequently the most prominent part of her body. The greatly developed ovipositor of some of the ichneumon as much as 6 in long on one species frequently causes people to be frightened by the harmless insect. They are beneficial in helping control insect populations of harmful insects. Virtually every known species of insect is attacked by some species of ichneumon. See HYMENOPTERA. [J.D.N.]

## Ichthyopterygia

Predatory fish finned and sea swimming reptile of the Mesozoic Era widely divergent from land forms although surely descended from some ancient terrestrial group, a yet unrecognized. All are much alike in body form, short-necked, streamlined, swordfish-like or porpoise-like in body, yet unrelated to either fishes or porpoises, a noteworthy example of convergence in evolution. A single order is included in the subclass. See ICHTHYOSAURIA. [C.L.C.]

## Ichthyornis

A genus of fossil bird of Late Cretaceous age known from six species from the Niobrara formation of western Kansas and one species from the lower bed in Texas. The earliest member of the family Ichthyornithidae and with the related *Apatornis aler* (Marsh) family Apatornithidae the order Ichthyornithiformes (subclass Neornithes). They differ from all other birds except the Archaeopteryx in having the centra of the dorsal vertebrae with each end concave (amphicelous). Ichthyornis and *Apatornis* were pigeon-sized flying birds with well-developed wing and keel. The first described by O. Marsh, part of jaw bearing teeth in socket were associated with the therapsid one so that for many years they were known as the birds. In 1952 however, J. T. Gregory from studies of the original material in the Peabody Museum, Yale University found that the jaw fragments were not a bird but were from reptilian material. See ARCHAEOPTERYX. Also see ICHTHYORNITHIFORMES. [A.W.]

## Ichthyornithes

One of the three orders comprising the subclass Neornithes, true birds. The family Ichthyornithidae were until recently placed in the order Ichthyornithiformes in the superclass Ornithiformes on the belief that Ichthyornis was a true bird. J. T. Gregory, however, found that the third jaw bearing segment, Ichthyornis was reptilian. He found that the same was true of the other two families for long Ichthyornis near the Ichthyornithiformes. However, Ichthyornis is still a true bird in position because of the evidence which is at present the preponderant. The eight known species of Ichthyornithes are all from the Upper Cretaceous of Kansas and the Texas. They were flying birds in land and air. [A.W.]

grow rapidly but imperfectly to form skeletal crystals (Fig 1)

In most rock grain shapes are controlled largely by sequence of mineral crystallization and the nature of the associated minerals. A grain is said to be euhedral if bound by its characteristic crystal faces and anhedral if crystal faces are absent. Intermediate forms are subhedral. Crystals developed wholly in a magma tend to be euhedral. Late crystals have more interference from the adjacent grains and are referred to as irregular or irregularly bounded.

It is not necessary that all mutually interfering grains develop anhedral form. Some mineral species are so great in power of growth (a grain forms a grain) and are capable of maintaining their habit in the crystal form in competition with the environment.

With igneous rocks how a grainy or granular texture in which the majority of crystals are roughly equidimensional. Relatively grains with euhedral outlines and a few of the rock are idiomorphic granular texture. More commonly early all grains are anhedral and the rock texture is albitic or phanitic. More rocks show an intermediate ophitic or porphyritic granular texture (Fig 2).

**Porphyritic texture** The grain size of a monocrystalline rock is extremely uniform (e.g. granular texture) but that of the matrix may be highly irregular. Rock in which relatively large crystals (phenocrysts) are dispersed in a matrix of groundmass of fine grained glassy mineral is said to be porphyritic or porphyritic (Fig 3). Porphyritic glasses are abundant in pyroclastic rocks especially in ash.

**Porphyritic rock** may form in number of ways (1) Phenocrysts may grow slowly and slowly while the magma was slowly cooled. The groundmass may have long led later with the magma was rapidly chilled. (2) Phenocrysts may be cooled (3) Phenocrysts in many rocks (e.g. granite) may develop late and still attain large

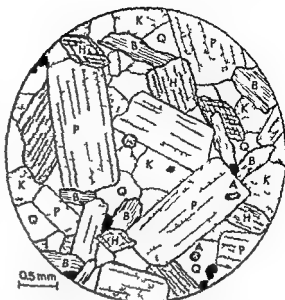


Fig 2 Hypomorphology of texture of igneous rocks. Euhedral plagioclase (P) subhedral hornblende (H) biotite (B) hercynite (Q) and potash feldspar (K). A: aegirine, a silicate mineral, appears as a dark, elongated mineral (black).

dimension if they grow late, especially if they grow later than that of adjacent minerals. (3) The large crystals of some plutonic rocks are probably more or less idiomorphic. They may have formed as crystals in the magma from the old liquid magma. (4) Large crystals in many rocks (e.g. in porphyritic and lamprophyres) may not be indigenous. They may have been incorporated during intrusion of the magma. (5) Phenocrysts may be developed by inclusion or by dissolution of superimposed magma. See LAMPROPHYRE PHENOCRYST PORPHYRY.

**Phanitic texture** The texture involves numerous small, irregular, and more or less interlocking crystals of another

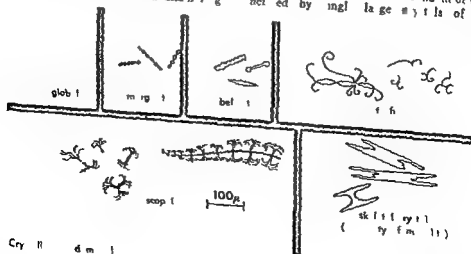
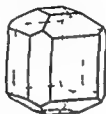
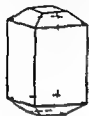


Fig 3 Crystal texture

## Idocrase

A silicate mineral of complex composition crystallizing in the tetragonal system and known by the name vesuvianite. Crystals frequently well formed are usually prismatic with pyramidal terminations. It commonly occurs in columnar aggregates but may be granular or massive. The luster is vitreous to resinous; the color is usually green or brown but may be yellow, blue or red. Hardness is 6½ on Mohs scale; specific gravity is 3.35–3.45. See SILICATE MINERALS.



Prismatic crystals of mineral idocrase showing pyramidal terminations. (From C. S. Hurlbut Jr. *Determinative Mineralogy*, 16th ed. Wiley, 1952).

The composition of idocrase is expressed by the formula  $\text{Ca}_2\text{Al}(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})\text{Si}_2\text{O}_6(\text{OH})_2$ . Magnesium and ferrous iron are present in varying amounts and boron or fluorine is found in some varieties. Beryllium has been reported in small amounts.

Idocrase is found characteristically in crystalline limestones resulting from contact metamorphism. It is there associated with other contact minerals such as garnet, diopside, wollastonite, and tourmaline. Noted localities are Zermatt, Switzerland; Christiansand, Norway; River Vilus, Siberia; and Chiapas, Mexico. In the United States it is found at Sanford, Maine; Franklin, New Jersey; Amity, New York; and at many contact metamorphic deposits in western state. A compact green variety resembling jade is found in California and is called californite. [C. S. H.]

## Igneous rocks

The rocks which have congealed from a molten mass. They may be composed of crystals and glass or both depending on the conditions of formation. The molten matter from which they come is called magma, where erupted to the surface it is commonly known as lava. Solidification of the hot melt occurs in response to loss of heat. Generated at depth the magma tends to rise. It commonly breaks through the earth's crust and spills out on the earth's surface or ocean floor to form volcanic or extrusive rocks. At the surface where cooling is rapid, fine-grained or glassy rocks are formed.

Where unable to reach the surface, magma cools more slowly, modified by the surrounding rocks, and a coarse texture develops. The resulting igneous rock appears intrusive relative to adjacent rock. In general, deeply formed (plutonic) rocks display

the coarsest texture. Igneous rocks formed at shallow depths (hypabyssal) display features somewhat intermediate between those of volcanic and plutonic types. See MAGMA, PLUTON, VOLCANO, VOLCANOLOGY.

**Textures of igneous rocks.** Texture refers to the mutual relation of the rock constituents within a uniform aggregate. It is dependent upon the relative amounts of crystalline and amorphous (glassy) matter as well as the size, shape, and arrangement of the constituents.

Rock textures are highly significant; they shed light on the problem of rock genesis and tell much about the conditions and environment under which the rock formed.

**Crystallinity.** This property expresses the proportion of crystalline to amorphous material in an igneous rock. Most igneous rocks, such as granite, are composed entirely of crystalline material and are called holocrystalline. Entirely glassy or holohyaline rocks such as obsidian are extremely rare. Many rocks such as rhyolite or vitrophyre contain both glass and crystals and are called hypocrystalline or hypohyaline.

Glass may be considered an amorphous solid with no systematic arrangement of its constituent atoms. Crystals form as the temperature of a magma falls and atoms begin to arrange themselves into orderly repetitive groups. With rapid cooling there may be no opportunity for crystals to develop and a magma will congeal as glass.

**Granularity or grain size.** In igneous rock, grain size ranges widely and depends in large part upon rate of cooling. Rocks arephanitic orphanitic crystalline if their constituent mineral grains can be distinguished as individual entities by the naked eye. All other igneous rocks are aphanitic.

Phanitic rocks are divided according to average grain diameter as follows: fine-grained, grains less than 1 mm; medium-grained, grain 1–5 mm; coarse-grained, grain 5–30 mm; very coarse-grained (pegmatitic), grains more than 3 cm.

Aphanitic rocks are microcrystalline if individual constituents can be distinguished only with the microscope. They are cryptocrystalline if constituents are submicroscopically crystalline. Diminutively glassy rock are considered aphanitic. Aphanitic rock rich in light-colored (felsic) minerals are termed felsitic. See FELSITY.

**Crystalline shape.** In igneous rock, grain shape is controlled by many factors. In highly glassy rocks, the rate of growth is important. Crystallites (Fig. 1) are the most rudimentary form and are found in glassy rock in which rapid crystallization is retarded rather than growth. They are too small to be seen with the eye and cannot be identified as mineral species. The euhedral crystalline grains that may be observed are beautifully displayed in the glassy rock pitchstone. See OBSIDIAN.

Microcline are slightly larger than the crystals. They are lighter and can usually be identified specifically under the microscope. Many feldspar

grow rapidly but impeded to form skeletal crystals (Fig 1)

In most rocks, grains have continued largely by quenching of mineral crystallization and the latter and a type of a so-called mineral. A grain is said to be euhedral if bounded by flat crystal faces and anhedral if crystals are absent. Intermediate forms are subhedral. Crystals developed early in a magma tend to be euhedral. Later crystals have to meet interference from previous adjacent grains and are forced to a sum of irregular mutual boundaries.

It is not necessary that all minerals usually intergrow. Some minerals may have a greater power of growth (greater solubility) and are capable of intergrowth with other crystals. The crystal form competes with adhesion.

Most igneous rocks show a granular texture in which the majority of crystals are roughly equidimensional. Randomly grains will be developed in a matrix and the rock an idiocryst granular texture. Most commonly nearly all grains are anhedral and the rock texture is allotropic granular. Most rocks show an intermediate or hypocrystalline granular texture (Fig 2).

Porphyritic texture. The grains of some igneous rocks extrinsically uniform (equigranular texture) but that of the may be highly inequigranular. In which relatively large crystals (phenocrysts) are dispersed in a matrix groundmass (fine-grained crystalline material) and it is porphyritic (Fig 3). Porphyritic glasses are the basaltic phenocrysts are known specifically as trachytes.

Porphyritic may be a number of ways (1) Phenocrysts may have grown early and slowly while the magma was developing. The groundmass may have crystallized later after the magma was ruptured by the level where rapid cooling occurred. (2) Phenocrysts may have cooled from granitic magma and then attain large

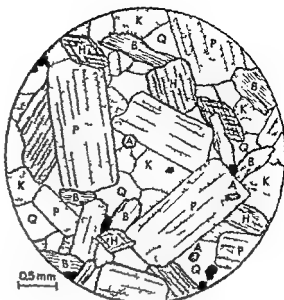


Fig 2 Hypocrystalline granular texture. Euhedral plagioclase (P) subhedral hornblende (H) biotite (B) feldspar (Q) quartz (Q) diopside (D) actinolite (A) subhedral magnetite (black)

dimensions if the growth rate is sufficiently greater than that of adjacent minerals. (3) The large crystals of some plutonic rocks are probably more properly labeled as porphyroblasts. They may have formed simultaneously in old rock by recrystallization or deduced by residual from the liquid magma. (4) Large crystals in many rocks (intrusive porphyries and hypophyses) may not be indigenous. They may have been incorporated during intrusion of the magma. (5) Phenocrysts might develop by nucleation or by direct nucleation of peritectic magma. (6) LAMPROPHYRE PHENOCRYST PORPHYRY.

Porphyritic texture. The texture consists of numerous small grains of one mineral in a matrix of another mineral by angle large crystals of another

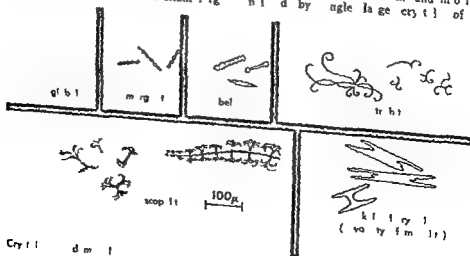


Fig 3 Crystalline texture

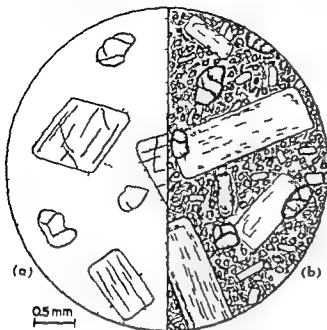


Fig 3 Porphyritic textures (a) Porphyritic rhyolite showing euhedral phenocrysts of sanidine and euhedral crystals of quartz in a basaltic copoly crystalline matrix (b) Porphyritic basalt showing euhedral phenocrysts of plagioclase and subhedral ones of a matrix of granular pyroxene and feldspar microlites

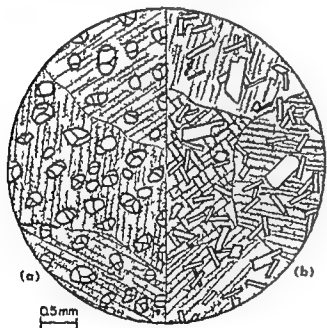


Fig 4 (a) Poikilitic texture with large crystals of feldspar enclosing small grains of olivine (b) Ophitic texture with large crystals of pyroxene enclosing small laths of plagioclase

(Fig 17) Conditions favouring development of poikilitic texture are not well understood. In some rocks, the texture may have developed by direct crystallization of magma. In other rocks, the texture may require recrystallization of magmatic rock.

**Ophitic texture** This is a special type of poikilitic texture and is characteristic of the rock diorite (Fig 11). The texture may be lath-shaped crystal

of plagioclase and feldspar enclosed by large anhedral grains or plates of pyroxene (augite or pigeonite). If the length of the feldspar crystal exceeds that of the pyroxene, enclosures are only partial and the texture is called **ubolitic**. See **DIABASE**.

Other texture more or less related to ophitic are characteristic of very fine-grained and glassy rock of basaltic composition. See **BASALT**.

**Implication or intergrowth textures** These are formed by the mutual penetration of two or more mineral phases. The intergrowth may be so intimate that one phase appears integrated into smaller grains which are isolated by the other. Within small domains, however, grains of one phase show optical and crystallographic continuity.

Graphic or micrographic textures may develop between almost any mineral pair where one member in certain form may be emulating in reaction is enclosed by the other (Fig 5a). Micropegmatitic texture is essentially a micrographic texture involving only quartz and plagioclase (Fig 5b). If the intergrowth is more varied and involves plagioclase fringing radial or micropegmatitic pattern the texture is graphic (Fig 5c). In myrmekitic texture plagioclase (generally oligoclase) grains enclose vermicular quartz (Fig 5d). Perthitic texture is extremely common in feldspar and takes on a wide variety of form (Fig 6). It usually consists of tiny masses of plagioclase enclosed by potash feldspar. Various proportions of the two constituents may exist. Where potash feldspar is more abundant and constitutes the host mineral, the material is known as perthite. Where plagioclase is predominant, the material is called antiperthite.

Some implication textures may develop by simultaneous crystallization of two constituents. Other may form by exsolution in the solid state (see perthite). Still other texture may be due to the partial replacement of one mineral phase by another.

**Structures of igneous rocks** Structure as applied to igneous rock is a slightly confused with texture. In general, however, structure refers to a geometrical form or architectural feature in a rock. Structure emphasizes the heterogeneous nature of a rock or mineral aggregate. Texture emphasizes homogeneity. Certain large-scale structures such as faults and joints are common to most rock types. They are geological structures. The structure of igneous rock may tell much about its history and additions of crystalline material to them else.

**Linear structures** The structures are common in many igneous rocks. They form within magma prior to or on or after the earth's surface. The structures are primarily partial or total crystallization of water-rich liquids and of crystallization of team liquid which may be preserved as small cavities within the magma. In highly viscous lava (rhyolite) much gas may be trapped in tiny bubbles may form Rajil

ool g fth f thyl liquid pod s a pum ceo s  
 tru : re ( h a ter uc fth r k pum c ) In  
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 fill d th m eral (u h a qua tz, cal ite ep  
 d t eolt ) dep ted fr m fl id whch p  
 m ted th rock Such fill ng re called amygdul s  
 i llu to th i lm d h pe Th tru t e is  
 k w n a mygdal d l (Fig 7a)

If a olt ope ing Th ar the m st om n n  
 ca n u tructu fou d n pluton c rock They  
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 nd app ar crut d with bea ut fully fo m d c y  
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 d p h w h e f g p r e s a l a t y l o w

Z d y r t s Crystals p s ng zon l s t  
 t m m comm n a d p p a to be b l t up f  
 co t r i h e l l r e s i d f f e n t m p s t n  
 a h l l w the g a l r y t i o u t n (Fig 8)  
 Th gh m nute the s z n l r t e s a e adly  
 d t i d th n c t m und th m e o r p l  
 d d a l e may b th k o r th n d z e d

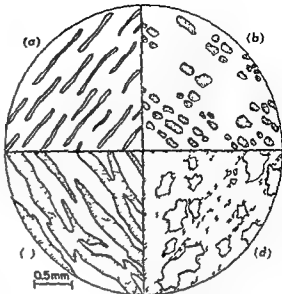


Fig 6 P r h t i t ( ) St g p r h t (b) P i h  
 p r h t (c) V p e r t h t (d) A t p r h t

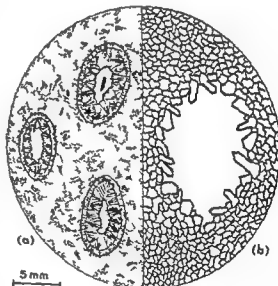


Fig 7 ( ) Amygdalod l t h w g f m ga  
 l (b bbl ) l fill d w h l t m o l s  
 (b) M i t y f e a d g a t w h a l l t a  
 m p h g l a t t E h d o l t l b l  
 ly wh r y s t l f m t y b d y

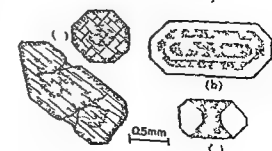


Fig 8 ( ) Z d r y t l f p y  
 p l o g d l ( ) H g l t c t (b) Z e d  
 p y

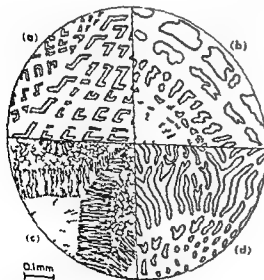


Fig 9 I m p l t a w t t ( ) M o  
 p p h i e t (b) M o p e g m t t o t ( ) G o  
 p h y c t u (d) M y r m l t t t



boundaries may be sharp or gradational. Compositional changes from the crystals center outward may be great or slight; they may be progressive, never interrupted, oscillatory, or repetitive. Zoning is characteristic of minerals belonging to solid solution series (for example plagioclase, pyroxene, and amphibole).

Numerous theories have been proposed to explain various types of zoning in minerals. They are based on physical chemical principles relating to super saturation of the magma and changes in composition, pressure, temperature, and volatile content of the magma. Movement of crystals from one part of the magma chamber to another may have been important. The most common type of zoning (progressive) appears because of incomplete reaction between solid and liquid phases during the crystallization of an immiscible series.

**Hourglass structure.** This structure, somewhat related to zoning, is most frequently displayed by crystals of pyroxene. Certain sections through a crystal possessing the structure have the appearance of an hourglass (Fig. 8). This structure probably demonstrates the minute differences in energy involved at different faces of a growing crystal. It may be due to electrical adsorption of ions by different faces during crystal growth.

**Reaction rims.** The rims or zones in which one mineral envelopes another are believed to have formed by reaction and are common in some rocks (Fig. 9). They may develop by reaction between early formed crystals and surrounding magma.

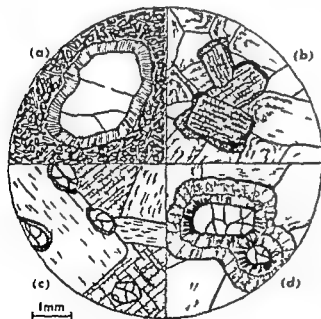


Fig. 9 (a) Reaction rim of pyroxene around quartz and feldspar. (b) Reaction rim of hornblende around pyroxene. (c) Reaction rim of plagioclase around pyroxene. (d) Reaction rim of amphibole around pyroxene. Scale bar = 1mm.

(pyroxene rims on early formed olivine crystals). Reaction between two incompatible minerals induced by residual fluids in the late stage of magma consolidation may produce similar effects. Pyroxene or amphibole may form by reaction around olivine crystals where they would otherwise come in contact with plagioclase. Some petrologists refer to rims of primary origin as coronas and those of secondary origin as kelyphitic borders.

**Spherulites.** These are radial aggregates of needlelike crystals. They are roughly spherical and usually less than a centimeter across (Fig. 10). They abound in silica-rich lava, particularly rhyolite, glass, and are composed principally of quartz, tridymite, and alkali feldspar.

Somewhat similar aggregates in basaltic rock, called varioles, consist of radial plagioclase crystals with interstitial glass or granules of olivine or pyroxene.

**Spherulite.** Consisting of concentric shells with cavernous interior, these are known as lithophy or stone bubble. In many the tiny annular cavities are lined with delicate crystals of cristobalite, quartz, and feldspar.

**Inclusions or enclosures.** Inclusions are common in most varieties of igneous rock. The materials of extraneous looking material vary widely in size, shape, constitution, and origin. Inclusions demonstrated to be foreign rock fragments enclosed and trapped by congealing magma or lava may be specifically designated as xenoliths. Incorporated foreign crystals are known as xenocrysts. See METAMORPHIC LITH.

If an earlier consolidated portion of a magma is ruptured and fragments of it become enclosed by a portion which solidifies later, the older rock bodies are known as autoliths. Enclosure formed by elective accretion of mineral, either during or after consolidation of a magma, are termed segregations.

**Orbicular structures.** These structures, found in some plutonic rocks (granite, gneiss, and diorite), are orbicular, generally up to a few inches across. They have concentric shells of different mineral composition and thickness, which may envelope xenolithic cores (Fig. 11). Most commonly dark mineral shells (rich in hornblende or pyroxene) alternate with light shells (rich in feldspar). In individual shells may be sharply or vaguely defined and the mineral within may be granular or elongate and in radial or tangential arrangement.

Orbicular structure may develop by reaction (between xenolith and magma) involving chemical reconstitution of the shell fragments in rhythmic crystallization and xenolith. Many orbicular structures may represent products of metamorphism and metamorphism of igneous rocks. METAMORPHIC ROCKS. METAMORPHIC MINERALOGY.

**Flow or lenticular structure.** This type of structure is a peculiar feature of certain lavas (basalt, andesite). Rock exhibiting this structure appears to be composed of closely packed pillows.

haped m e s up t eral feet r s Individual  
p l l h a e a = fine-grained rust or margin  
which attrie abundant i l commo ly ar  
r nged e n ntr lly with the p l low surface

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sugg t th t they we e as embled in a p l t c t  
R lat el ltl matr e c r and it n t s c m  
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till not l l n d r t o d S e S p i l i t e s e l o  
P r e c a m b r i a n

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mber f d i r c t f e t = m r o k Th t u t u e  
m y b e f r m e d b y f l w a g d r n g e r y t a l l z a t i o n f  
a magma (p r m y f l w s t u r e) f o t o l i d i f i c a  
t n f l w (e c o d a r y) m y d e l p s i m i l a r f e a t  
t b u t t h e e a e c l s e d a s m e t a m o r p h i m s  
g

Th t r t u r t a k t h e f r m f p a r l l s t e k s  
r l e n e s o f d f f e r e t m i n r l u t x t u e s o n  
m a y r u l t f o m p a r a l l a g e m e t o f e l o g a t e  
p l t m i n r l (m s h n b l e d o f l d p r)  
m f l w t r u t r e o t o f a b n d a t l a b b y  
l u z n n l t h s m p a l l e l r e n t a t i o n  
F l g e m a y b x p r e d b y f l w l e (l n e i o n)  
r f l l a v (m e f l u i o) Th e m a y b  
t g h t t r t d

F l d l t t e a n d f l u x s t u e Th e  
g n t t e r m a d p e f l v s i m p l y f l w a g t  
l a a m g r a (F g 10c)

S h l S h l e g l t r a k s  
p t h l s h a i g m l b l e d e d o t  
l n e s n d m u g p a m y f e t n l g t h

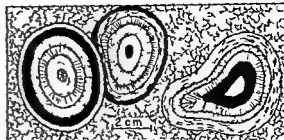


Fig 11 Ob l t c t

They a r g e r a l l e m p s e d o f t h a m e m n r a l  
s t h e e l o n g o c k b u t i n d i f f e r e n t p r o p o r t i o n s  
S c h l e n m a y r e p r e s e n t a l s e r e g a t i n d r a w n  
u t b y m a g m a f l w S o m e m y b e x e o l i t h m o r e o r  
l d g e s t d a n d r e w r k e d b y m a g m a O t h e s m a y  
e p e r e t = i d u a l m a g m a t i l q u o r s f d f f e r e n t  
c m p t = i n j e c t e d i n t o a f r e d y c r y s t a l l i e d p o r  
t i o n S c h l e n f o r m e d n s o l i d s c k a r e m o r e  
p r p e r l y m e t m o p h i c o r m e t a o m a t i c f e a t u r e  
S C H A T I Z A T I O N

B a n d i n g B a n d i n g i s e x h i b i t e d b y r o c k s c o m  
p o s e d f a l t e r n t i n g l a y e r f d i f f e r e n t c m p o s i t i o n  
t e x t u r e o r o l r Th e t e r m i s m r l y d e c r i p t i e  
n o t g a t e I f f l o w g e t t b e i m p l i e d t h e t e r m  
f l w b n d n u e d

C l a s s i f i c a t i o n o f i g n e o u r o c k s S c h m e s f o r  
l a s i f y i n g i g n e o u o c k a r n u m e r u l i o r t o  
t h e a d e t f t h p o l r i z i n g m i c r p e (r o u g h l y  
18 0) r k l a s f i c a t i o n r e b a s e d o n m e g a  
p i c h a t e s t a c a m a n y f t h e m i n l e a d n g  
Th e y s t m w r e g d u l l y i m p e d a c h m  
l a n a l y w e r e m o r e c o m m o l y e m p l o y e d

T o d a y t h p r n e p a l m e t h o d s o f c l a s s i f i c a t i o n  
a u d (1) M a g a p c c t m e s a r e b a s e d o n  
a p p e a r a = f t h r k i n h a n d p e c m n a s e n  
w t l m g n f y g g l s (h a n d l e n ) S c h s h e m e s  
a r f u l t h f i l d t y o f r o k s (2) M i c o  
c p i c c h e m e (l a g l y m n a l o g a l) a r e e m  
p l j d i n l a b a t o y n e t a t n w h r e m o r e d e  
t l e d n f m t o n i s n e e d d (3) C h m c a l s c h m e s  
a e e u f u l b u t h a m o e l i m i t e d a p p l c a t i =  
T h e m n e a l c n t e n t a n d t u s f a r c k g n e r a l l y  
i l l m c h m a b o t t h e o k s r g i n t h a d a  
b l k h m i c l n a l F x a m p l g r a n t e q r i z  
p p h y r r h y l t e a n d o b d n m y a l l h v t h  
a m e h e a l c o m p t i o n t t h e g e l o g c o n  
d t u d w h c h c h f m m a y b e r y d i f f e  
e n t G r a n t s o l d f i e s l w l y a t d p t h a d u d e r  
h g h p e u e Th e p o p h y r y m a y r y s t a l l n t w  
s t a g e s n e a t d p t h a d a l t n e a r e r t h e s r  
f a e Th e o t h t w o k s a e f u f i c a l o g n  
t h l d o l d f i s m o s t p d l y n d a g l a s s

I g n e o u c k l w g r t a t n h e m a l l y  
m i n l g a l l y t e x t u a l l y n d t u t a l l y w t h  
f e w i f a n y n a t a l b u n d e s Th c u n t s  
l g p a t f t h g a d i a g r r n t m m g r e t o l  
g i t t l w s i g n e o u r k s b u l d b c l a s s i f i e d  
Th f l l o w n g s u b e c t s d p l u t o n i c  
= d h y p b l t y p  
P l t c r c k s P l u t o n c r o c k = n l a r g a  
t r u m = (h a t h l t h s t o c k a d o t h e r l g e

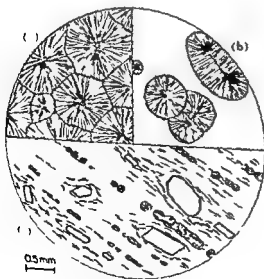


Fig 10 (a) Spherulitic structure (b) Spherulitic structure  
vol pl (c) Fl d i t r u t u h w g t o f  
ph s ph o c r y m f d r y l l t



mp is the point of the fact that the variations within families may be greater than those between families.

**Mineral composition of igneous rocks** Igneous rock forming mineral may be classified as primary or secondary. The primary minerals are those

formed by direct crystallization from the magma. Secondary minerals may form at a subsequent time.

**Essential primary minerals** The principal primary minerals are relatively few and may be listed as light colored (felsic) or dark colored

Table 2 Average chemical compositions of igneous rocks (after Duff) (figures reduced in 100%)

Compos	Plutonic rocks							Nepheline syenite
	Granite	Granodiorite	Quartz diorite	Syenite	Monzonite	Diorite	Gabbro	
SiO <sub>2</sub>	61.59	61.01	61.59	60.19	56.1	67.7	49.4	51.63
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.39	0.57	0.66	0.67	1.10	0.81	0.94	0.86
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	14.47	15.94	16.1	16.8	16.96	16.67	17.88	19.89
FeO	1.57	1.74	1.54	1.74	3.16	3.16	3.16	3.3
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.78	1.8	3.77	3.8	4.01	4.40	5.9	0
MgO	1	0.7	1.0	1.4	1.6	1.3	1.3	3
MgO	88	1.91	3.0	4.9	3.7	4.17	7.51	8.7
CaO	1.99	4.4	3.8	4.30	6.0	6.4	10.99	2.51
Na <sub>2</sub> O	3.48	3.0	3.37	3.98	3.67	3.39	3.5	8.6
K <sub>2</sub> O	4.11	7	1.0	1.49	3.76	1	0.0	4.6
H <sub>2</sub> O	8.6	1.04	1	1.16	1.0	1.36	1.4	1.3
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	1.9	0	6	8	4.7		8	

Compos	Aphanitic rocks							
	Rhyolite	Quartz latite	Dacite	Trahyte	Latite	Andesite	Basalt	Picrobasalt
SiO <sub>2</sub>	80	64.3	65.68	60.68	57.6	59.59	49.06	57.4
TiO <sub>2</sub>	33	8	5.7	3.8	1.00	0.77	1.36	4.1
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	13.49	16.1	16	17.4	16.68	17.31	15.0	0.60
FeO	1.4	4.04	3.8	6.4	3.9	3.33	5.38	3
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	8.8	2.0	1.90	6	4.0	3.13	6.37	1.03
MgO	0.8	0.9	0.6	0.6	1.0	1.8	3.1	1.3
MgO	3.8	1.4	1.41	1.1	3.2		6.17	3.0
CaO	1.0	4.4	3.46	3.09	4	5.80	8.9	1.0
Na <sub>2</sub> O	3.38	3.34	3.97	4.43	3.54	3.54	3.11	8.84
K <sub>2</sub> O	1.46	3	6.7	5.74	4.39	0.1	1.5	5.23
H <sub>2</sub> O	1.47	1.90	1.0	1.6	9.1	1.6	1.6	0.4
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.8	7	1.5	4	3.6	6	4	1

Table 3 Approximate mineral composition of the common plutonic rock

Rock	Plutonic rocks		Minerals	
Granite	Plagioclase feldspar 30-40 Sod. plagioclase 0-30 Quartz 0-30	80-90	Biotite to hornblende	5-10
Granodiorite	Plagioclase feldspar 10-20 Sod. plagioclase 30-40 Quartz 1-2	70-90	Hornblende to biotite	10-20
Quartz diorite	Oligoclase to andesite 50-60 Quartz 1-2	40-60	Hornblende to biotite pyroxene	15-30
Syenite	Plagioclase feldspar 0-5 Plagioclase feldspar 60-80 Sod. plagioclase 10-20	0-90	Hornblende to biotite pyroxene	10-30
Monzonite	Quartz 0-5 Plagioclase feldspar 0-30 Sod. plagioclase 4-5	60-80	Biotite to hornblende pyroxene	15-30
Diorite	Oligoclase to andesite 0-5 Plagioclase feldspar 0-5 Quartz 0-5	60-80	Hornblende to biotite pyroxene	0-10
Gabbro	Labradorite 0-5 Plagioclase feldspar 0-5 Quartz 0-5	0-40	Pyroxene to biotite	0-10



composition of the fact that the variation with field may be greater than the between fields

**Mineral composition of igneous rocks** Igneous rock forming minerals may be listed as primary and secondary. The primary minerals are those

formed by direct crystallization from the magma. Secondary minerals may form at any subsequent time.

**Essential primary minerals** The principal primary minerals are relatively few and may be classified as light colored (felsic) or dark colored

Table 2. Average chemical compositions of igneous rocks (in weight %) (totals adjusted to 100%)

Components	Plutonic rocks							% pl. line asent
	Granite	Granodiorite	Quartz diorite	Syenite	Monzonite	Diorite	Gabbro	
SiO <sub>2</sub>	61.8	61.0	61.59	60.19	56.1	56.77	49.4	54.63
TiO <sub>2</sub>	39	57	66	67	110	84	97	86
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	14.4	19.1	16.1	16.8	16.96	16.6	17.88	19.89
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.57	1.73	1	4	93	3.16	3.16	3.3
FeO	1.78	6	3.77	3.8	4.01	4.40	5.9	0
MgO	1	07	10	14	16	13	13	3
MgO	88	191	80	49	3.7	117	7.51	87
CaO	1.99	4.1	5.38	4.30	6.50	6.4	10.99	10.1
Na <sub>2</sub> O	3.48	3.70	3.37	3.98	3.67	3.39	.55	8.6
K <sub>2</sub> O	1.11	75	10	4.49	3.6	1	89	5.46
H <sub>2</sub> O	84	104	1	116	10	136	14	13
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	19	0	6	28	47		8	5

Components	Aphanitic rocks							
	Rhyolite	Quartzite	Diorite	Tephrite	Laitite	Andesite	Basalt	Phonolite
SiO <sub>2</sub>	7.80	7.43	65.68	60.68	57.65	59.59	49.06	57.45
TiO <sub>2</sub>	33	8	7	38	100	7	136	41
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	13.49	16.15	16	17.4	16.68	17.31	15.0	0.60
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.4	4.01	38	61	.29	1.33	5.38	3
FeO	88	1.0	190	6	4.0	3.13	6.37	1.03
MgO	08	09	06	06	10	18	31	13
MgO	38	173	111	11	3.7	7	6.17	30
CaO	1.0	1.1	3.16	3.09	5.4	80	8.9	1.50
Na <sub>2</sub> O	3.38	3.31	3.97	4.43	3.59	3.8	3.11	8.81
K <sub>2</sub> O	4.16	3.1	67	5.73	4.39	0.1	1	5.3
H <sub>2</sub> O	1.47	190	150	1.6	91	1.6	1.6	1.04
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	08	7	15	1	36	6	4	1

Table 3. Approximate mineral composition of the common plutonic rocks

Rock	Feldspar minerals	Other minerals	Accessory minerals
Granite	Plagioclase 30-40 Quartz 0-30	80-90 Biotite, hornblende	5-10
Granodiorite	Plagioclase 15-20 Quartz 0-5	10 Biotite, hornblende	10-
Quartz diorite	Oligoclase 55-60 Quartz 15-20	0-80 Hornblende, biotite, pyroxene	10-30
Syenite	Plagioclase 60-80 Oligoclase 10-20	0-90 Biotite, hornblende, pyroxene	10-30
Monzonite	Quartz 0-5 Plagioclase 0-30	60-80 Biotite, hornblende, pyroxene	15-30
Diorite	Quartz 0-5 Oligoclase 80-90	60-80 Hornblende, biotite, pyroxene	0-40
Gabbro	Plagioclase 0-5 Oligoclase 0-5	Pyroxene, biotite, hornblende	5

(mafic) varieties. **Feldic** is a mnemonic term for feldspathic minerals (feldspar and feldspathoids) and silica (quartz, tridymite and cristobalite). **Mafic** is mnemonic for magnesium and iron rich minerals (biotite amphibole pyroxene and olivine). **Feldic** minerals are composed largely of silica alumina and alkalis. **Mafics** are rich in iron magnesium and calcium.

Table 3 summarizes the essential primary constituents of the more common plutonic rocks. The percentage ranges are highly generalized. Individual rock specimens may depart radically from these values but the averages are fairly representative and useful for comparison. The mineral composition of the corresponding volcanic rocks is roughly similar to the values in the table. Major departures will be encountered particularly in the glassy rocks.

**Accessory minerals.** Accessory minerals are those occurring in very small or trace amounts. They consist principally of magnetite, ilmenite, pyrite, hematite, apatite, zircon, rutile and sphene. Most generally they are widely distributed as tiny grains or crystals.

**Secondary minerals.** Included in this group are minerals formed by addition of material subsequent to solidification of the rock or by alteration of minerals already present in the rock. The addition of fluorine and boron which tend to concentrate in the residual magmatic liquids to already crystallized portions of the rock may form small crystals of fluorite, topaz or tourmaline. Alteration in which certain minerals become more or less reconstituted is common and widespread. It is generally believed to occur during the late stages of solidification while hot residual fluids (for example water and carbon dioxide) permeate the crystal aggregate and convert water free silicate minerals into hydrous forms. This hydrothermal or deuteric effect may be so intense that virtually all igneous characteristics of the rock are lost. The common alteration products derived from the essential primary minerals are listed below.

Primary mineral	Secondary mineral
Quartz	Not altered
Orthoclase feldspar	Kaolinite, sericite
Plagioclase	Kaolinite, sericite (paragonite), epidote, zoisite, calcite
Nepheline	Cancrinite, analcite, natrolite
Leucite	Nepheline and orthoclase feldspar
Sodalite	Analcite, cancrinite
Biotite	Chlorite, splene, epidote, rutile, iron oxide
Hornblende	Actinolite, biotite, chlorite, epidote, calcite
Orthopyroxene	Antigorite, actinolite, talc
Clinopyroxene	Hornblende, actinolite, biotite, chlorite, epidote, antigorite
Olivine	Serpentine, magnetite, talc, magnesite

**Density of igneous rocks.** Density is a significant rock property and is a function largely of mineral

Table 4 Approximate densities of some common plutonic rocks

Rock	Average	Range
Granite	2.6	2.5 - 2.7
Gabbro	2.8	2.7 - 2.9
Syenite	2.8	2.7 - 2.9
Quartzite	2.6	2.5 - 2.7
Diorite	2.8	2.7 - 2.9
Chert	2.6	2.5 - 2.7

erological composition and porosity. Chemical composition alone is not a reliable indication of density because different minerals (with different densities) may form from a single bulk composition.

Table 4 gives the approximate average and common range of density for the more abundant plutonic rocks. Densities of volcanic equivalents are generally slightly lower due to higher porosity and greater amount of glass. Highly porous volcanic rocks (pumice and scoria) may be so vesicular as to float on water. The density of completely glassy rocks is approximately 6% less than that of the corresponding holocrystalline (entirely crystalline) type. [C.A.C.A.]

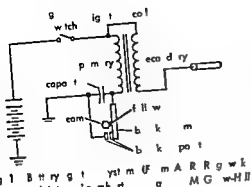
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## Ignition system

The ignition system of an internal combustion engine initiates the chemical reaction between fuel and air in the cylinder charge. For maximum efficiency it is necessary to ignite the charge in each cylinder shortly before the piston reaches the top of its compression stroke. The best timing is determined experimentally for various engine speed and loadings and the ignition system is designed to provide this timing automatically. For smooth running multicylinder engines are usually built so that the various pistons arrive at their firing top center positions in evenly spaced intervals. The sequence in which the cylinders reach their firing points depends upon the geometrical arrangement of the cylinders and crankshaft and is called the firing order of the engine. The ignition system distributes the ignition impulses to the cylinders in this order (see DISTRIBUTOR).

A large class of engine including most automobile engines operate on a premixed charge of fuel and air. In these engines the charge is ignited by passing a high voltage current between two electrodes in the combustion chamber (see SPARK PLUG). The electrodes are mounted in a removable unit. When a spark is sufficient energy jumps the gap between the electrodes, a self-propagating flame is produced in the fuel-air mixture which spreads rapidly throughout the charge.

**Battery system.** The electrical energy for the spark is obtained from a storage battery in practically all spark-ignition engines. The battery is



ily 6 r 12 lt i part fal w lta = p mary  
 i t whi h ncl d a switch the p m ry w d  
 g f the ion t n c l a p c t o r (o c n  
 d r) d b a k e r p n t s (F g l) W h e t h  
 w i t h a d b r e a k e p t i a c c e d r i f w  
 f m t h e b t t e y t h g h t h e p m r y w d g  
 t h u g h t h e p t a d b k t t h b t t e r y t h o g h  
 t h e n g e f m e r o t h r g r u d e n e c t n T h  
 l w n d a b o t o f t o n T h e u r r n t m  
 t h p m r y w n d n g n d u e m a g n t f i d n  
 d r d t h c W h e t h b r a k p t  
 p a t h e g e d n a m t i e s t h e u e t  
 h h d b e p n g t h g h t h e p o n t w  
 f i t t h e a p a t A t h c p e t o b e c m e s  
 h r g d t h p m a r y n t f i l l r p d l y a d t h  
 m g t f i e l d c l l p  
 T h e c d r y w d g t i m a y t r n f  
 f e w r e w d n t h e a m e w i t h t h p m a r y  
 d g T h e p d l l p o f t h m g e t c f i e l d  
 t h n e i d u e s r y h i g h l i g e t h e e c  
 d r y w d g  
 W i t h t h a p i t t h e p m r y l i g  
 e d b t h p d l l p e f t h e m g e t f i l  
 d t h g m y w d g w l d a e n t  
 t h e b e k p t T h r e w l d b r n t h  
 p o m d s o o d t y t h e m T h n p a c t o l  
 t h p d d p t h g m a r y c u n t a n  
 l l p f t h m g n t f i d b t h f w h  
 e c c e r y f r t h p d t n f t h e h i g h s e d  
 l i g e  
 T h e c d l t a g l e d t t h p k p l  
 p p q e b y a t a r y w i t h l l d  
 d t b t w h h d e b y t h e m h f t  
 d t h b k p o t m F m t h h e d f  
 d t r i b t w l l t a t e d w e r y t h e c c e  
 r v l i g e t t h t l l e c t o d f t h e p  
 p l g T h d h r g e w h h t k e s p l b e t w  
 t h t l l e c t o d d t h e g d e d e l e c t  
 d t h m b t h m b a g n t t h c y l  
 h g  
 T h t m g f t h g n t n p k t l l e  
 t h p e g f t h b k r p o t T h g  
 t m g m b e e d b y o t a t i n g t h p l t  
 h h t h b k p o t m t e d e l t  
 t h m T m g m l o o b e e d b y h  
 t h g l l t h p b e t w e e t h l l k  
 d t h h f t h a d e s t

**Magneto system** The magneto system is similar to the battery system except that the voltage required to a callow of current in the primary winding is generated by the rotation of a set of permanent magnets in a field supplied by a battery. The magnets are usually in a line with the coil winding the rotating magnets on coil windings on core break points (Fig 2)

am ap c t r and d t i b u t r (fig 2)  
 Rotat i n f the m g n e t i s c o m p l e t e l y r e -  
 e s e s the d r e c t i o n f the m a g n e t i c f l u i d i n the o f f -  
 r n c o e a b o u t w h c h the p r i m a r y a n d e c o n d a r y  
 o l a c e w u n d T h i s r p d c h a n g e i n f l x i n t e n s i t y  
 a d d e c t i n d s a c c r e n t t h r o u g h the p r i m a r y  
 c i t . W h e the p r i m a r y c u r r e n t e a c h e s a h g h  
 l e a d t h c t r b u t o n t o the t a l f l x i s p r i -  
 m a r y f o m t h p r i m a r y c u r r e n t a d n t f r m the  
 m a g n e t m a g n e t s the b r e k r p i n t o p e n w i t h  
 the s a m e r s l t a s i n the b a t t e r y s y t m d a c r b e d

For maximum economy voltage is essential that the battery be open when the primary magnet has reached particular position with respect to the pole core. Any attempt to vary ignition timing by shifting the opening time of the breaker points will therefore result in a weaker spark.

park  
Th magneto s ofte ued n m ll ompa t n  
t ll t on h a l w n m we d utb a d e  
g es n wh h a battery w uld r pre ent e tra  
bulk a d we ght a d req ire replacement r re-  
cha g i g t me n n stall t ion h autom bil  
n n wh ch a battery is equ red fo h other p r  
p ses a st t g pak ng l ight d f el g ge  
o n n wh h o de ble a at n gnit n tim  
a g n e s ry b ttery igt n system s u u  
ally ch e

Compression ignition In the diesel engine, the fuel is compressed to a high temperature and then ignited by a spark plug. The combustion process is controlled by the timing of the fuel injection. The diesel engine is known for its high efficiency and torque. It is commonly used in heavy-duty applications such as trucks, buses, and industrial machinery. The diesel engine's compression ratio is typically higher than that of a gasoline engine, which allows it to achieve higher thermal efficiency. However, diesel engines are also known for their higher emissions of particulates and nitrogen oxides. Modern diesel engines incorporate various emission control technologies to reduce these pollutants. The diesel engine's fuel system is more complex than that of a gasoline engine, requiring high-pressure fuel injection. The diesel engine's combustion process is a diffusion flame, where the fuel and air mix as they burn. This results in a slower combustion rate compared to the premixed combustion of a gasoline engine. Despite these challenges, the diesel engine remains a popular choice for many applications due to its durability and fuel economy.

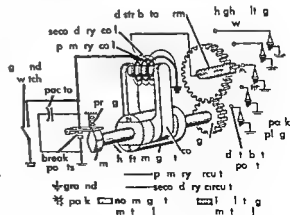


Fig 2 Mg + lig + ytm (F m C H Ch +  
F ld C F T yl d S Ob Th A pl d ll  
E g 5th d MG w-Hll 1949)



firing order of the cylinders is established by the geometry of the pump. In compression ignition engine the fuel burns soon after ignition as it is able to find air with which to combine so that less attention need be paid to automatic injection timing control. When control is used pump shaft position relative to engine shaft can be changed automatically by centrifugal weights and a mechanical linkage.

Sometimes in small engines a premixed charge of fuel and air is ignited near the end of the compression stroke by the temperature of compression. Under the condition the entire charge once ignited burns rapidly since all parts of the charge are equally heated and prepared for combustion. The result is rough pounding combustion due to the high reaction rate. No precise way exists to control the exact timing of ignition with this method so that the combustion may occur too early or too late depending upon such factors as the temperature of the cylinder and the kind of fuel being used. Efficiency with such ignition is likely to be poor. [A.R.R.]

## Ignitron

A single anode mercury pool gas tube operating in the arc region. An ignitor is employed to initiate the arc cathode spot before each conducting period. See CATHODE.

**Ignitron principle.** The ignitor is a stationary electrode of semiconducting material such as boron carbide which extends into the mercury pool. A current pulse through the ignitor starts the arc at a desired time in each cycle of the ac anode voltage by forming a cathode spot on the mercury surface. Either a thyatron tube or a semiconductor rectifier may be used to deliver the firing impulse to the ignitor. See MERCURY VAPOR RECTIFIER.

The tube is nonconducting regardless of anode potential until a source of electrons is applied to initiate electrical breakdown of the gas within the tube. The cathode potential provided by the ignitor supplies the needed electrons to create an electron avalanche which terminates as an arc. Once the arc has been formed the cathode spot is maintained by the arc current and the action of the ignitor is terminated.

The ignitron remains conducting until the anode potential is reversed and for some microseconds thereafter until all the ions have become deionized.

The repetitive starting technique employed with ignitron makes possible a short anode-to-cathode spacing resulting in low voltage drop and high efficiency. In addition single anode tube like the ignitron and the excitron are unique among gas-filled tubes in their ability to carry high overload and short circuit current without appreciable surge. This results from the use of the excess vapor pressure generated by the cathode. The normal vapor pressure is controlled usually by water cooling at a value sufficient for safe operation at rated load. The combination of a mercury pool cathode and a short anode-to-cathode spacing

makes it possible for the excess vapor generated by the overload current to fill the discharge space just when needed and then condense on the walls in time for the next cycle of normal operation.

**Ignitron types.** There are two classes of ignitrons especially designed for different kinds of service. They are the welder and the rectifier ignitron.

**Welder ignitrons.** This tube is used in pairs connected in series parallel to operate a ac contactor and control the primary current supplied to resistance welding transformers.

Welding ignitrons are of relatively open construction with little shielding and are designed specifically to carry the high current encountered in resistance welding. In welding service the anode current wave is sinusoidal and the current decreases to zero so slowly that the residual vapor blast and ionization present at the beginning of the inverse period is low enough that it does not cause arc back. Furthermore only the tube that conducts last is subjected to inverse voltage im-

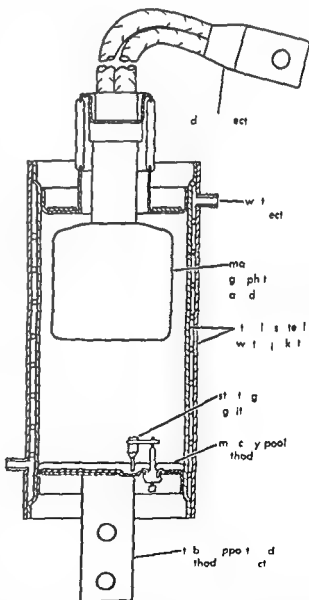


Fig. 1 Sealed ignitron for welding service (G. A. Eltch)

med at ly fill ng cndu on The condit n  
permt the ue of tubes with ut spl sh baffle  
d n u g baffle and ge d Th e n t r c t n of  
typ l e led ign t on for w ld ng er vice is shown  
Fig 1

R c t f r g n t r n s Th s g n t r n s g n e r l y  
e d t f x t c o r t p w e from a c t d c  
Th m l l e t b e a e o f s a l d e n t r c t n The  
l a g e r u n t a b l t n t a k s which a r e i t h r  
a u m a l d o r c o t n u o u s l y a c u u m p u m p e d

R t f r g t r n s a r e q u i p p e d w i t h b f f  
th p a b e t w e e n t h a n o d e a d c h o d t o p r e t  
the s p o l l a t f o m t h r w n g m e r c u r y d o p s  
a g n t t h e f f t h e a n d e a d t h e l p d e i n z e  
t h m e u r y a p r I n t h e l a g e r e t h e a n d  
r o n d e d b y o n e o r m o e g r d s t m c s e t h e  
r a t e f d e n i z a t n f t h e a p c a d j a c n t t h e  
a n o d e d t p r i d a d d t a l c o t o l o f t h t a r t  
l a o d e c o d c t i o n T h e n t c t n f a t y p c l  
h g h e r r t g t r n f r e t i f i e e h o w n  
F g

F i n g c i r c u i t s I g n t r r e q u e a p u l s e f o u r n t  
o f 5-50 a m p e s n t h f r w a d d e t i n f r o m t h e

ignitor to the mercury to start the cathode pot Since  
the ignitor resistance varies from a few to several  
hundred ohms the voltage of several hundred  
volts must be impressed on it

The voltage and current applied to the ignitor  
must be limited to low values to avoid damage Special circuits have been  
designed to deliver the firing pulse to the ignitor  
and provide control of the time of firing

Anode firing circuit The power circuit voltage  
which appears between anode and cathode just before  
firing condition is used to fire the ignitor in the  
circuit shown in Fig 3 This circuit is widely used  
in ignitor contactor (resistance welding) service

Capacitor firing circuit A capacitor that has  
been charged in mains supply ac power source is  
discharged through the ignitor at the desired moment  
in the cycle by a thyatron in the circuit  
shown in Fig 4

Magnetic firing circuit Many ignitors rectify  
a supplied with magnetron firing to obtain longer  
life and greater reliability than is possible with  
thyatron firing tube in the circuit the capacitor

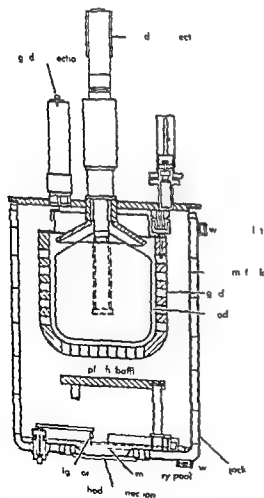


Fig 2 Schematic diagram of a typical ignitor assembly

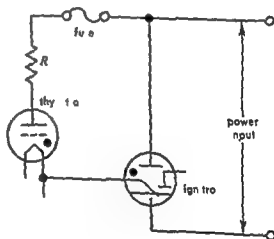


Fig 3 Elementary anode firing circuit

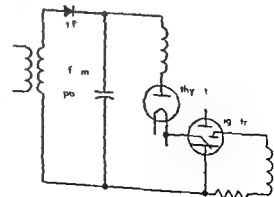


Fig 4 Elementary capacitor firing circuit

tor is discharged through the ignitor by saturating a reactor which is connected in series with the capacitor

Ignitron tubes and tanks are built in size ranging from 2 to 20 in diameter Ratings range from 25 to 1000 amperes average per tube at voltages from 250 to 20 000 volts and higher

[CCH]

**Bibliography** W C Dow *Fundamentals of Engineering Electronics* 1952 J Slepian and L R Ludwig A new method of initiating the cathode of an arc *Trans AIEE* 2(2) 693-698 1933

## Illitis

Regional illitis is a sharply demarcated inflammation of the lower portion of the small intestine. Actually other portions of the small and large intestine may be involved so regional enteritis or regional enterocolitis may be preferred terms

The disease is marked by intestinal obstruction pain cramps diarrhea and constipation There is often associated weight loss or anemia Late in the disease after a long but often vague history the bowel appears thickened and firm and has a nodular mucosal lining which shows variable ulceration and inflammation Adjacent segments may show little or no change

The cause is unknown but faulty protein absorption psychic factors and abnormality of lymphatic drainage have been implicated by various investigators Although regional illitis is found most often in young adults no age group is immune

The clinical course is typically erratic but progressive in most individuals Neither medical or surgical treatment offers a guaranteed cure because extension to previously unaffected bowel segments may occur

In contrast to regional illitis ordinary illitis is any inflammation of the ileum from specific causes such as trauma or infections such as tuberculosis typhoid fever and dysentery See **INTESTINE IN TESTINE DISORDERS OF** [EGST]

## Illite

The term illite is not a specific clay mineral name but is a general term for the mica type clay minerals It is commonly used for any nonexpanding clay mineral with a 10 angstrom c-axis spacing See **CLAY MINERALS**

Illite clays are used for the manufacture of structural clay products such as brick and tile Some degraded high plastic illites are used for bonding molding and See **CLAY COMMERCIAL CLAY PRODUCT ARCHITECTURAL**

**Structural characteristics** By definition all illite has the mica type structure The basic structural unit is composed of two silica tetrahedral sheets with a central octahedral sheet This unit is essentially the same as that of montmorillonite except that there is always some replacement ( $15\% \pm$ ) of silicon by aluminum in the tetrahedral sheets This substitution results in a charge deficiency which is balanced by potassium ion between

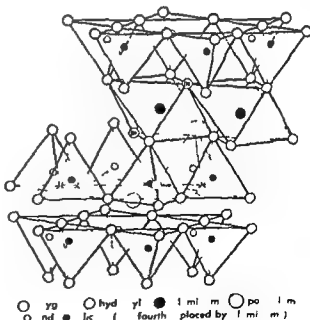
the illite unit layers The stacking of adjacent illite layers is such that the potassium just fits and is always surrounded by a total of 12 oxygens thus balancing the structural charge and binding the layers together without the possibility of expansion (see Fig 1) Illites may be either dioctahedral or trioctahedral depending on the population of possible octahedral positions They differ from well crystallized micas in that they exhibit less substitution of aluminum for silicon resulting in a higher silicon to aluminum molecular ratio

**Nonstructural characteristics** The size of naturally occurring illite particles is very small yet they are larger and thicker than montmorillonite particles and have better defined edges

The illites have a moderately low cation exchange capacity (20-30 milliequivalents per 100 grams) It is primarily due to broken bonds but lattice substitutions may also be a cause in poorly crystallized varieties The rate of the exchange reaction is likely to be slow since a small part of the exchange occurs through partial replacement of the firmly held interlayer potassium ions

Dehydration curves for illites show the presence of a small amount of interlayer water which is lost below 100 C The OH lattice water is lost between 300 and 600 C Following the loss of structure between 850 and 950 C spinel and mullite phases form prior to fusion at about 1400 C

**Occurrence** Illite is a common product of weathering if potash is present in the environment of alteration It is a frequent constituent in many soil types and may form in soils under certain conditions as a consequence of the addition of potash fertilizers This is possible because illite has the ability to fix potassium Much illite in soils loses its potassium through leaching and becomes degraded On the addition of potassium to such ma-



Diagrammatic sketch of the structure of illite (From R E G m Clay Minerals McGraw-Hill 1953)



luminosity function. Any one of several units of area may be used to express the density of this luminous flux or the illumination. In the English system the unit of illumination is the lumen/ft<sup>2</sup>. The term foot candle was coined in earlier evaluation techniques and probably will continue to persist in the terminology. The lumen/ft<sup>2</sup> and the foot candle are identical units. See FOOT CANDLE, ILLUMINANCE, LUMEN, LUMINOUS FLUX, LUX, PRIOR.

**Light sources.** Nature's source of radiation the sun produces radiant power on the earth extending from wavelengths below  $0.3 \mu$  in the ultraviolet region to well over  $3 \mu$  in the infrared region of the spectrum. The sun's spectral radiation per unit of wavelength is greatest in the region of  $0.4-0.9 \mu$ . The response of the human eye is well matched to this range of wavelengths. See SOLAR RADIATION, VISION.

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**Vapor lamps.** The electric lamps operate by the passage of an electric current through a gas or vapor. In some lamps the light may be produced by incandescence of one or both electrodes. In other the radiation results from luminescent phenomena in the electrically excited gas itself. See ARC LAMP, VAPOR LAMP.

**Fluorescent lamps.** These are usually in the form of a glass tube either straight or curved coated internally with one or more fluorescent powders called phosphors. Electrons are located at each end of the tube. The lamp is filled to a low pressure with an inert gas and a small amount of mercury is added. The electric current passing through the gas and vapor generates ultraviolet radiation which in turn excites the phosphor to emit light. If the emission of light continues only during the excitation the process is called fluorescence. If

the materials continue to emit light after the source of excitation energy is removed the process is called phosphorescence. Phosphors for fluorescent lamps are chosen to accentuate the fluorescent action. See FLUORESCENT LAMP.

**Reflection and transmission.** The control of light is of primary importance in illumination engineering because light sources rarely have inherent characteristics of distribution, brightness, or color desirable for direct application. Modification of light may be provided in a number of ways all of which may be grouped under the general topics of reflection and transmission. Reflection from a surface and transmission through it each may be classified according to their spatial and spectral characteristics.

**Spatial characteristics.** Spatially a surface may exhibit reflection conditions ranging from a regular or specular reflection to an ideally diffuse characteristic. Similarly transmission may range spatially from complete transparency to an idealized diffuse transmission.

Figure 2 illustrates the extremes of specular reflection such as would be obtained from polished metal or silvered glass and an ideal mat finished surface composed of microscopic roughness of minute crystals or pigment particles. The specular reflector gives a direct image of the source with the angle of reflection equal to the angle of incidence. The plot shown for the diffuse reflector is the small area intensity distribution curve; it exhibits a cosine distribution in the idealized case.

Practical surface possesses partial reflection characteristics intermediate between the ideal, particularly at the diffuse end of the range. Typical distribution curves are shown in Fig. 3. In all of the illumination the light source is small. Figure 3a demonstrates that even with the least practical mat surface such as a dull finished metal or tho painted with flat paint the reflection of the source of light has some light influence upon the intensity distribution as evidenced by an irregularity of the cosine distribution of intensity. The small area of the surface, Figure 3b and c demonstrate the pronounced influence of the location of the light source upon the intensity distribution of surfaces covered with semimat material such as

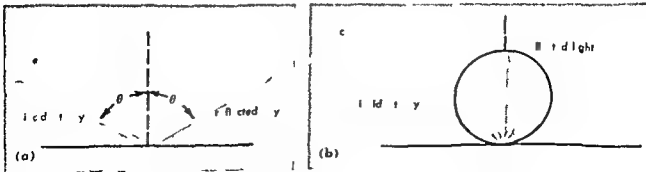


Fig. 2 Ideal effects (a) Specular (b) Diffuse  
(From W. B. B. & Illumination Engineering, 2d ed.  
McGraw-Hill, 1953)

in h p r Figure 3d that a m x d  
r flecti j h n m n n l n w n a diffu ing  
u f m o r l a d i h a u r f a c e p i n g b e e n  
S p a t i a l c h a r a c t e r i s t i c s m a y b e i l l u s t r a t e d F o r F i g u r e 4 a h o w s r e g u l a r t r a n s p a r e n t t r a n s m i s s i o n o n a h a n u r s w i t h l a r g e p l a n e F i g u r e 4 b h a s t h e d i f f u s e t r a n s m i s s i o n w i t h a d i f f u s e d d i f f u s i o n m a t e r i a l F o r F i g u r e 4 c a r e f e r r e d t o t h e t r a n s p a r e n t m a g n i t u d e a t a n g l e s  $\theta$  a n d  $\theta'$  a r e

P a t a l t n m i o n m a t e r i a l f o r e p a t i a l t r a n s m i s s i o n h a s t r a n s m i t t e d b e t w e e n t h e e d a l d h b t n e n t y d t r i b u t i o n m a y b e i l l u s t r a t e d b y F i g u r e 5 d m o n s t r a t e s t h a t a p a r t o f t h e i n t e n s i t y d i f f u s e d w i t h i n d i a l p a r t m i l k g l s m a t e r i a l A m r d e t e r m i n e s n i s h w n i n F i g 5 b f a f a l e d p a l g l m d i m n w l h t h e m a j o r t y p e o f t h e b a m a l l i c l e r g l a s s c a n d f l i d f t e d g l m a t e r i a l s m u h l d f f i d m d t h e l o t n i s t h l i g h t u c e g l i f l u e n s t h n t e t d t r b t i n c u r v e f F i g 5 a d d

S p e c t r a l A n a l y s i s I f a h m e n o a d u n f w l g t h  $\lambda$  m p u n g e u p n u s a f e t h f l e c t h a a t i c o t h t a n m n h a t i t i l l r e s i t g e o m t r e l l a e d n g t h p t l n d r t f t h e p d p t n T h e m g n i t d e f i t l p o w e r d e n t y r f f t e d o r t r a n s m i t t e d t o t h e d d e f i d a t h e p o t i t l f t n f i t  $\rho$  o r t h e p a t i a l t r a n s m i s s i o n f a c t o r

r e s p e c t i v e l y T h u s  $\rho = J / G$  a n d  $\rho = J / G$  w h e r e  $J$  i s t h e r e f l e c t e d p e c t r a l m i s s i o n a t w a v e l e n g t h  $\lambda$   $J$  i s t h e t r a n s m i t t e d s p e c t r a l e m i s s i o n a t w a v e l e n g t h  $\lambda$  a n d  $G$  i s t h e s p e c t r a l r a d i a t i o n a t w a v e l e n g t h  $\lambda$

A d c e f r m e a u r n o  $\rho$  o r  $\rho$  s c a l l e d a s p e c t r a l t r a n s m i s s i o n C o m p a r i s o n o f  $J$  r  $J$  w i t h  $G$  ( r i s t h e t r a n s m i t t e d e q u a l e c ) m a y b e a c c o m p l i s h e d b y u s u a l p h o t o e l e c t r i c m e t h o d o f p h o t o m e t r y S e e P h o t o m e t r y

E t h e r n t i n u s a r l i n e s p e c t r a s u r c e s o f i r r a d i a t i o n m a y c o n s i d e r e d a s p r a c t i c a l s u r c e s o f r a d i a n t p o w e r d e n s i t y T h e r e s u l t i n g s e c o n d a r y s o u r c e o f a d i a n t p o w e r d e n s i t y  $J$  o r  $J'$  w i l l b e m o d i f i e d c o m p a r e d w i t h t h e o r i g i n a l d e p e n d i n g u p o n t h e s p e c t r a l f l e c t i o n r a t i o m o n c h a r a c t e r i s t i c o f t h e r e f l e c t i n g o r t r a n s m i t t i n g m a t e r i a l

A n e a l u a t i o n o f  $J$  r  $J'$  i n g t h e e l a t i v e l u m i n a n c e f a c t o r s m a y b e e f f e c t e d f o r t h e s e c o n d a r y s o u r c e o f r a d i a n t p o w e r d e n s i t y i n t h e a m m n n e r a s d o n e f o r c i d n t a d i a n t p o w e r d e n s i t y a n d t h e b l a n k n d c o n t i n u o u s s p e c t r u m e f f e c t s m a y b e i n c l u d e d a s d e m o n s t r a t e d f o r t h e e v a l u a t i o n o f t h e i l l u m i n a t i o n T h e a l u a t i o n o f t h e r e f l e c t e d t r a n s m i t t e d l u m i n o u s f l u x d e n s i t y  $J$  o r  $J'$  i n t h e l u m i n a n c e v m b l d b y  $L$  f o r t h e r e f l e c t i o n  $L$  a n d  $L'$  f o r t h e t r a n s m i t t e d u s i n g T h e f u n c t i o n a l o p e r a t i o n a r e h w g a p h i c a l l y t h e r e s u l t o f c u r v e o f F i g 6 f o r t h e r e f l e c t i o n r e s u l t i n g f o m a c c o n t i n u o u s s p e c t r u m u s e T h e r a t i o  $L / L'$  t h l u m i n a n c e  $E$  e f f i c i e n c y  $\rho = L / E$  a n d  $\tau = L' / E$  w h e r e  $\rho$  i s t h e

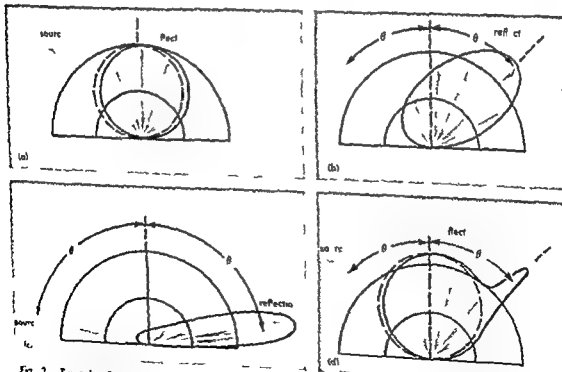


Fig 3 Typical Reflection Characteristics (a) Point Source (b) Semi-infinite Source (c) Semi-infinite Source (d) Infinite Source

D h e d r v i f f d (d) l i t t e d l o d b u t (F o m W B B f i l l m t E g 9 2 d e d M c G w H H 1953)

**luminosity function** Any one of several units of area may be used to express the density of this luminous flux or the illumination. In the English system the unit of illumination is the lumen/ft<sup>2</sup>. The term foot candle was coined in earlier evaluation techniques and probably will continue to persist in the terminology. The lumen/ft<sup>2</sup> and the foot candle are identical units. See FOOT CANDLE; ILLUMINANCE; LUMEN; LUMINOUS FLUX; LUX; PHOT.

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Figure 2 illustrates the extreme of peculiar reflection which would be obtained from a polished metal or silvered glass and an ideal mat-finished surface possessing microscopic roughness of minute crystals or pigment particles. The peculiar reflector gives a direct image of the source with the angle of reflection equal to the angle of incidence. The plot shown for the diffuse reflector is the small area intensity distribution curve; it exhibits a cosine distribution in the idealized case.

Practical surfaces possess spatial reflection characteristics intermediate between the ideal, particularly at the diffuse end of the range. Typical distribution curves are shown in Fig. 3. In all of the illustrations the light source is small. Figure 3a demonstrates that even with the least practical mat surface, such as a dull-finished metal, the light painted with flat paint, the location of the source of light has some light influence upon the intensity distribution as evidenced by an irregularity of the cosine distribution of intensity of the small area of the surface. Figure 3b and c demonstrate the pronounced influence of the location of the light source upon the intensity distribution for surfaces covered with emulating material, such as

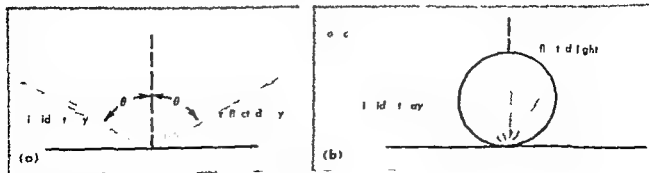


Fig. 2 Ideal reflection (a) Specular (b) Diffuse  
(From W. B. Boott, *Illuminating Engineering*, 2d ed., McGraw-Hill, 1953)

reflection is for the surface and is the transmission factor of the material. The reflection and transmission are dependent upon the source of illumination as well as the spectral character of the surface or the transmitting medium. Such factors are frequently published for tungsten filament light and arc lamps as guides and indicate the magnitude of the surface illumination needed to give too greatly from the spectral distribution.

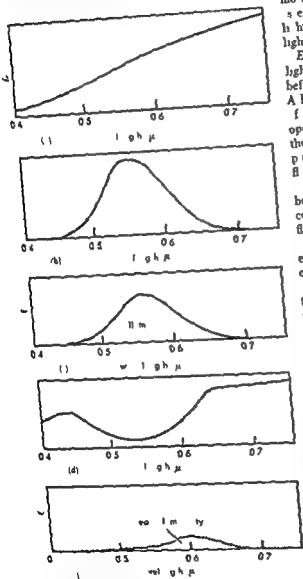


Fig 6 The process of violet light. (a) Spectral irradiance G curve (b) Relative luminosity curve (c) Relative spectral reflectance curve (d) Relative spectral transmittance curve (e) Relative spectral transmittance curve. Engineering 2d McGraw-Hill 1953

**Light control methods** The character of the reflecting surface or transmitting material determines the degree of light control possible. If a light ray is reflected or transmitted diffusely the shape of the reflecting or transmitting surface is of little importance. Although its size may be of great importance, a larger diffusing surface will reduce the brightness of the primary source. If a light ray is reflected from a specular surface more accurate control of the light can be effected.

**Parallel reflectors** These are probably the most useful of all reflectors. The rays emerge essentially parallel from such a reflector if the light source is placed at its focal point. Spherical, elliptical, and parabolic mirrors are reflectors.

**Elliptical reflectors** A relatively large amount of light may be made to pass through a small opening before being directed out by using an elliptical reflector. A light source is placed at one of the focal points of a nearly complete elliptical reflector. A small opening is placed at the second focal point where the light is focused. Such a design is used for the public spotlight. For further discussion of reflectors see PROJECTOR (LIGHT).

**Lens control** Refraction of light rays at the boundary between glass and air may be used to control transmitted light in a manner similar to reflection. A simple thick lens may be cut away if the cutaway piece is duplicated in the new equivalent surface. Shattering elements in the field of the light beam occur. There may be little or no energy so far as hits or floodlight, but they would be undesirable for high quality picture projection. See LENSES OPTICAL.

**Polarization of light** Light rays emitted by common sources may be considered as waves vibrating at all angles in planes at right angles to the direction of the rays. As they pass through a substance so as to be reflected from a polished surface, particularly to contain glass wave components, the direction of vibration is absorbed more than the other direction. Such light is said to be polarized.

Polarized light may be controlled by a transparent substance of polarizing material. When the absorbing substance is oriented perpendicular to the plane of the light, minimum amount of light is exercised. If the absorbing substance is tilted 90 degrees, the polarized light is essentially completely absorbed. Because of light reflection from water or polished surfaces, highly polarized glare from windows is effectively controlled by polarized sunglasses. An anisotropic polarized light is used also for detection of stress and distortions in glass and plastics. The strands are supported by a force.

**INTERIOR LIGHTING DESIGN**

**Interior lighting design** Attention must be given to a comfortable level of illumination. The lighting design should be a balanced distribution of illumination and control of brightness. The lighting should be a good example of contrast. The atmosphere should be a balance of illumination required that sufficient number of light



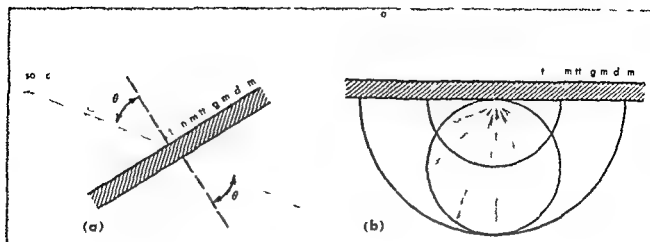


Fig 4 Ideal transmission characteristics (a) Specular (b) Diffuse (From W B Boast Illumination Engineering 2d ed McGraw Hill 1953)

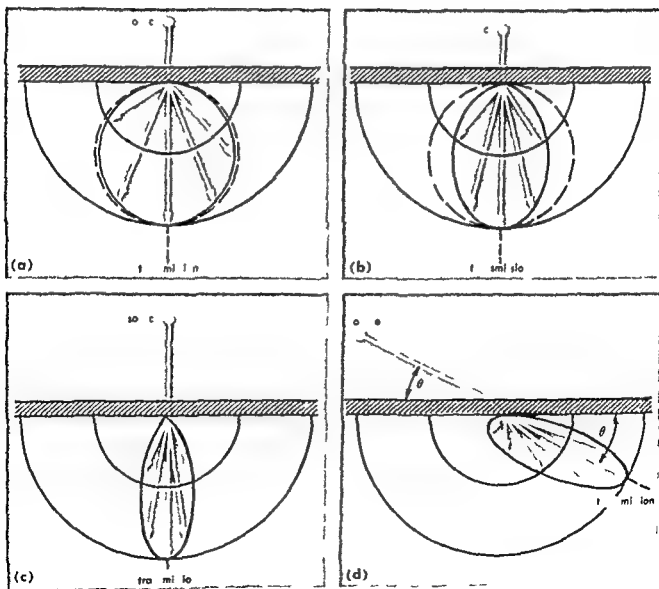


Fig 5 Typical transmission characteristics (a) Solid opal glass (b) Flashed opal glass (c) Sand blasted glass (d) Sand blasted glass with side light at 30

from plane at 30 degrees (From W B Boast Illumination Engineering 2d ed McGraw Hill 1953)

et lighting wh m h gh lev l of illumi atn n is  
d tabl o an olatat s k Local lighting that  
does t suppl mnt ge ral light g u ally doe  
t perm i conform ne with the l m tati ns n  
l gh tne e tra ts for nt rior light ne g ns

**Exterior lighting design** The h m l gh t g  
of t r r ar a rves many u efu l purpo es  
Su h light ne te d int the f lds f ad er t ng  
and rec et l p r u s as well a l l t r an  
f l d i h th light ng f nd m l yards  
pa k ng areas a rpo t treet a d gh w y s The  
IES Light g Handb ok a d m ny t x books t eat  
in d l m a y f the e pec al zed appl at ons.

**Automobile headlamps** H ad lamp a n tw  
beam of d ffer nt ch ra t r t under the on  
trol f th d The a m g nd t n ty f n  
beam d gned t prov d tant ill m t at u  
Th t l r b am i med l w enough and in ch  
d rect o t p ev t glar f r com ng dr er  
Sealed be m h d gh t ha e been d n e  
be t 1940 W h m fiam nt b rns t tbe ent e  
l m p t epl d th a r et r ng th parabol c re  
flect s d nd t of al gn m t of the l gh t  
sou e b e t t h a w a p ble f r a epa ate lamp  
r p rman t flecto

**Recommended standards of illumination** Illu  
m n t i m l ha e b e t l h ed by the Illu  
m n t ng Eng er s Soc ty t b g all al  
ta k t th am lev l f l b l t f n m l o l  
n s m l t k m e a d than  
th r and h gh r l l m t o p o d e a o n  
pe t ng f t r n b ng ng h t a k t a s i o  
f t y lev l f b l t s d a r d e s t b  
l h d t l y f r n t e r l gh t ng d e n s but  
l o f r t r o s t m l d g rec m t on al  
l gh t g f r l l l m m m d d illum t n  
l m l l t e l e r l t e d in th h b l g r phy

**Colored light** Th great t p e c i n s i col r  
p e c h at o b t n e d b t h m f th p t a l  
rves f t t a e l gh t f i h d a t o  
H w e r f r t a l n d t o t h s b  
l d that y l r m d m f o m p l p t r a l  
m p o n t m b e m t h e d a l l y b p p r  
t g th p p e l y h m p o n t r d i a  
l Th l t m g n t d f t h e t h e m  
t t d t r l l e d th t r i c h o m a t  
n e f f i m l t h t r O h d g n t f d m  
t t w l n g h t d p e r t l p t y m y b e f  
t e d l o n f m t h e t r h m a t o e f f i c i e n t s  
s c i

**Color** {w m n}  
f t r p h C. L. Am k F l s n t L g h t  
x M l d e d 191 W F B w l g h t  
f h m d l l m t s E E g r t 3 d e d  
l l W H B a t H m t n E m n g d  
e d 191 W m n g F g e e g S o c t y I E S  
l g h t g H d b o o k 33 e d 1919 A F k n l t n  
d H d b o o k f E l t f E g n t h  
e d l l J O k h n l h E l t H m n a  
l d e d 1911 H M o o n a d D F S p r  
l g h t g H s 1948 H P d s J W A D l  
M e d t E l t f E g H d b o o k v l l  
t h e d 1919 H M A h p f t o d t t L g h t  
x 191

**Ilmenite**

A m n e r a l h a v i n g c o m p o s i t i o n  $FeTiO_3$  and c r y t a l  
l i n g i n the h x g o n a l y t e m I l m e n i t e f o u n d n  
c r y t a l t h a t a r e t a b l a p a r a l l e l t o the t a a l p l a n e  
w i t h r h m b h e d a l t u c a t o n b u t m u a l l y m a  
e t h h a r d n s 5.5-6 (M h s c a l ) and the  
p e f i c g r a t y s 4.7 T h u t e r t n t a l l i and the  
c l r i r n b l a c k I l m e n t s a n a c r y m n e r a l  
n i g n e o u s m k s and n o m e b a t e r o c k s f u n d  
n l a g e m s e s r e s l t n f r o m m a g m a t i c s e g r a  
t i n t w h h u t m a y l m t m a t e l y a c e a t e d w i t h  
m a g n e t i t e I t f o u n d i n c r y t a l s n the I l m e n  
M o u n t a i n s , R u s s a a n d n l a g g a n t i t y a t  
K a g e N o r w a y a d B a y S t P a u l and A l l a r d  
L a k Q u e b e c I n the U n i t e d S t a t e s i t a c e a t e d  
w i t h the m a g n e t t e d e p o s i t f l e A d r a d a c k r  
g o n a d i m i n e d a s a n r e f i n i t u m i u m a t T a h a w a  
N e w Y k S e e T I T A N I U M [C S H U]

**Image acoustical**

I l p o i n t s o u e o f m d i s p l a c e d o n o n i d f  
n x i e d d e f f e c t n g u r f a c e i t m a y b e c o i d r e d  
t h a e a n i m a g a t a n e q u a l e n t d t a n c o n  
i l t h r i d e o f the s c f c e a l n g a p e r p e n d i c u l a r  
p o j e c t o n a l o g u t t h f r l i a o p t a l m a e  
(s e l i a c e o p t i c a l ) The f l t y o f t h e i n g  
u r f a c e s o n a o u t w a r e f r e q u e n t l y c a b e p e  
d t e d b y the u l t i m g e s A s o u c e s f o n t  
o f a e r y r f l u w a l l f r e x a m p l e p l a r c o  
c e t and m a r y r e f l e c t 97-99% o f i c d n t  
n d e n e r g y w i l l h e a n i m a g e o f t r e n g t h  
a l m t e q u a l t t h a t o f the o u t e i b a t g n  
p h a e t h e u r T o b t a i n the t a l e f f e c t a t  
a n y p t d u t o the e m b e d a c t o n o f a u r c  
a d s u h r f l t i g u f a c the e f f e c t s d u t t h  
u c i t l f d n o t h r o u e o f e q u a l t e n g t h  
p l a c e d a t the m a g p o n t a e d d e d I f t h e r e i s a  
e c d f l e c t n g u f m p r e a t t h o c l l d  
f i t o d e m g w i l l h o m m a e c a l l e d the  
c o d o r d e r i m m o f the r e e a t a n q u a l e t  
d i t n e n t h t h i d f t h n d r f l e c t i n g  
i f S i m i l a r l y m i m a g e f the m o n d o r d  
m a g e i d e b t h d r d e r m a g n d o o n  
A l t h g h t h m e t h o d i s p e c i e n l y w h e n t h  
f i e t i g s r i a e t o a b o r p t i t i f t e n o f  
n d r a b l h l p n i n e s t g a t i n o f the a c t o n o f  
s o u n d w a e s n o o m s S A R C H I T E C T U R A L m o l a  
r i c s [C W H]

**Image optical**

A p t c a l i m g e s t h e m m f r m e d b the l g h t  
r a y s f m e l f l m n s o a l l u m n a t e d o b j e c t  
t h t t r e e a n p t c a l s e t m T h m g e s s a d  
t b e r a l f the l g h t a y c o n e r g t o a f o c u s  
o n t h i m g d e a n d r t u a l i f the r a y s e e m t o  
m f m a p o t w i t h n the i n t r u m e n t (s e a l l e  
t r i n )

T h p t i m g e o f o b j e c t i g n b y t h  
l g h t d t r i b t n t h m k p l a n m g f r m  
a h p n t f the o b j e c t t h m a g e p l e f a  
p t i v i e m The i d a l m f a p t c d  
n g t g r o m t a l p a s o b t a n e d w h e n a l l r a y s

sources be installed in a manner that produces an adequate level and a proper distribution of illumination. Brightness is controlled by adequate surface reflection or transmission areas associated with the lighting sources and with proper reflecting surfaces within the room itself. Control should ensure that the brightest surfaces of the room are not more than three times the brightness of the work and the brightness of the work not more than three times that of the darkest surfaces in the room. When such brightness ratio limitations are satisfied glare will be absent and a satisfactory visual environment is achieved. A proper application of color in the interior enhances the overall appearance.

The function of a building greatly influences the manner in which lighting is applied. A particular visual task may require a certain level of illumination but the lighting design is also influenced by the economics, appearance and quality of desired result. For example, application techniques are designated as industrial lighting, commercial lighting and school lighting. Certain application experience and consumer acceptance assume importance in the methods of achieving the level of illumination and control of brightness contrasts. The *IES Lighting Handbook* treats in detail many of the specialized concepts.

**Location and spacing of luminaires.** Many interior lighting designs utilize general lighting to distribute luminous flux throughout the room on an imaginary working plane which is usually 30 in above the floor. To accomplish a reasonably uniform illumination on this plane, certain limitations in spacing between luminaires and spacing between luminaires and walls must not be exceeded. The height of luminaires above the plane may be an important factor for some interiors. For indirect type luminaires the distance from the ceiling to the luminaire must provide a proper distribution of light over the ceiling. See LUMINAIRE.

**Room coefficients.** The shape of a room influences the fraction of the emitted luminous flux that will be received on the working plane. Equations and empirical tabulation have been developed to classify rooms according to their shape. Large broad rooms are more efficient than small or narrow rooms for transferring luminous flux from the luminaire to the working plane, particularly if the reflection factor of the side walls is low.

**Lumen method of illumination design.** This empirical method of design gives the average illumination on the working plane for a particular number of luminaire arranged in a symmetric pattern in a room. The illumination that may be expected to be maintained in the room is

$$F = \frac{\Phi \phi L A}{A}$$

where  $F$  is illumination in foot candles (or lumen / ft<sup>2</sup>);  $\phi$  is number of luminaire;  $\phi_i$  is initial luminous flux per luminaire in lumen;  $k$  is coefficient

of utilization;  $M$  is maintenance factor and  $A$  is area of room in square feet.

Tables of the coefficient of utilization are obtained empirically. Usually these tables pertain to a particular luminaire. The coefficient of utilization is a function of the room coefficient and the reflection factor of principally the ceiling and side walls. Also called the flux of light method, this was originally designed as a component method whereby the candle power distribution curve of any luminaire could be resolved into three component curves and each calculated according to an equation similar to that shown. However, modern use of the method is principally through coefficients of utilization for each particular luminaire.

The maintenance factor  $M$  is a numerical value used to account for lamp darkening and the collection of dirt within the luminaire which reduce the illumination emitted from the luminaire.

**Interreflection method.** The interreflection of luminous flux within a room is accounted for in the empirical data of the lumen method. An exact mathematical calculation of the distribution of luminous flux within rectangular rooms becomes extremely involved. Various simplifying assumptions, however, permit an approximate solution for both the illumination upon the working plane and the brightness of various surfaces within the room. Tabulations of calculated data for the normalized illumination and brightness for interiors of various room coefficients and surface reflection factors are published in some of the references given at the end of this article. Conformance with the 3 to 1 or 1 to 3 brightness ratio criterion for a comfortable visual environment becomes a standard checking procedure in the application of the interreflection method.

**Luminous architectural elements.** The original emphasis in the lumen method was upon discrete luminaires arranged symmetrically within the room. The development of the interreflection method of design presumed surface of initial brightness on ceiling, wall and floor as the sources of light within the room. Ingenuity in the application of both methods permit them to be applied both to designs involving luminaires within the room and to designs incorporating many types of luminous architectural elements such as illuminated ceiling, luminous ceiling and many types of lighting.

**Natural lighting.** Daylight may be an important factor in building design. For comfortable visual conditions any opening for the admission of daylight are planned in position and height and have carefully a any other part of a building. A window can be treated as any other type of light source and included as a part of the illumination and lighting design according to the conditions of lighting problem. It is usually a very practical electric lighting system for the time of day when the daylight is available.

**Supplementary lighting.** Local lighting, such as spotlighting, is frequently used to attain the

er l l ght n g whe e h ght level of illum at n i  
d able n sol ted ta k Local l ght ng that  
d o n t p p l e m e t g n e al l ght g usually d  
n i p e r m i c f o r m n with the l i m i t a t n o n  
b r i g h t e s n t r a s f r i t i o r l g h t i n g d e s o n

**Exterior lighting design** The nighttime lighting of  
of t e r t a e r v e m a n y u s e f u l p u p o e  
h l i g h t i n g t n d s i t t h e f i l d s o f d e r t i g  
n d r e c r e a t i o n a l p u t w e l l m i l i t a n  
f i e l d s h t h l i g h t i n g f u n d t r a l y d  
p r k g a s s i y r i t r e t n d h w a y The  
IES Light g H a d b o k a d m n y t e x t b o k s t r a t  
i n d e t l m n y f t h e s e s p e c i a l t d a p p l a t n s

**Automobile headlamps** Headlamp u e two  
b e m f d i f f e r e n t h a a t i c u n d e r t h e c n  
i l f i t h d r e T h a m i g n d i n t e n t y o f n e  
b e m i d e i g d t p r d d t n s l l m n t o n  
T h e b e a m i a i m e d l o u g h a d i n s u c h  
d i r e c t i o n t p r e v e n t g l r f o c m g d r

**Sealed beam f d l g h t s** h a m b e e u s e d s i n c e  
a b o t 1940 W h e a f l a m t b u r n u t t h e e n t u  
l a m p i r p l e e d t h e t i n g t h e p a b l e r e f l e c t  
f e e t r a d m d t o n f a l i g n m t f o r t h e l i g h t  
s o u e b e t t e r t h a w a s p o s s i b l f r p r t l a m p  
i n a p e r m a e t e r f i e t

**Recommended standards of illumination** Illu  
m t i l i h b e t a b l e d b y t h e I l l  
m i t g E g n e r g S o c i e t y t b g l i t a l  
t a k t h m l l o f i b i l i t y f m r m a l b r  
n o m u l t a k a m r d o t h n  
t h a d h u g h l l m n a t s p r v i d a o m  
p e n t i g f a t n b r n g g h a k s t o a t  
l e d r i l f i b i l i t y S i d d r e t a b l e  
f h e d n l f r n t r l i b i n g d m b t  
l o f t r i v i m t e s d n g e e t i o n l  
l i g h t i n g F t a b l e s f e c m m d e d l m t n  
l e s l l f n e s i t d n t h d b l g r p h y

**Colored light** T h g t t p e n c l e r  
p e r f i b t d b y t h t o f t h p e t l  
r e s f n t l w a l g h t f i t h r d a t n  
R w e s f u a l n d a t i n t h s b e  
l d t h t y t r m d e p l m p l p t r a l  
m p o t m a b e m t h d i l l y b y p p  
t i g t r e p p e l y h o m p o n e t r a d  
t T h t i m g n d e s f i t h e t h e m  
p o t d t n a l l e d t h e t h r o m t e  
n e f t f i t h i O t h d e a t n f d m  
n t w l g h t d p e c t l p a r t y m y b e o b  
t e d l o f m t h e s t h m a t f i n t s  
b c o (w s s)

F H g J h C. I A m k F l u n L x h t  
x W l i d 1937 W F H n L i g h t  
t h m d l l m t g E E g 3d e d  
l l W B B t l l l m t F g n g d  
e d l l l l l m t t g F g e e g S o c i e t y I E S  
I h t g H d b o o k 3d e d 1939 A E A n w h t  
f d h l b o o k f l t r i l E g 9c t  
e d l l l O k i l h l f l t l l l m n a  
d e d l l l f l l l M o n n d D f S f e n  
l h t g D x 1948 H l n d t d W A D l  
M e d l f l t l F g H d b o k l l  
t h e d (191) H V S h a r t l n t o d t i l g h t  
x 191

# Ilmenite

A m e r a l h a v n g c o m p t i o n F e T O 2 a n d c r y t a l  
l i n g i n t h e h x a g n l s y t e m I l m e n t e s f o u n d n  
r y t a l s t h a t a r e t a b u l a r r a l l e d t o t h e h a l p l a n e  
w i t h t h m b h e d a l t u n a n s b u t i s u a l l y m a s  
s e T h e h a d e s 1 S S - 6 (M o l c a l c ) a n d t h e  
p e c i f i c g r a v i t y 4.7 T h e l n t e r s m t a l l c a n d t h e  
c o l o r i r o n b l a k I l m e n t e s a n a c o r y n e r a l  
s e n e o u s t o k a n d i n o m l a i o k i f u n d  
l a g e m a e s r e u l t i g f r o m m a g m t s s e g e g a  
t n i w h c h i t m a y b e s t i m u l a t e d w i t h  
m a g n e t i t e I t i s f o u n d n c r y t l m t h I l m e n  
M o u t a i n s R u s s i a n d i n l a r g e q u a n t i t y a t  
h a g N o r w a y a n d B a y S t P a u l a n d A l l a r d  
L a k e Q u e b e r I n t h e U n i t e d S t a t e s i t i s a o c c u r r e d  
w i t h t h m a g n e t i t e d e p o s i t h A d r o n d a k r  
g a n d i r o n d a s a n o c c u r r e d i t i t a n i u m a t T a h a w a  
N e w Y o r k S e T i t a n i u m [ C R U ]

# Image acoustical

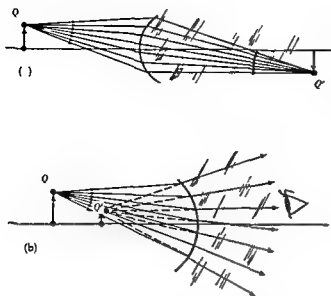
I f p o t s o u r c e f u n d t p l a c e d n n d o f  
a n t e d d r e f l e c t i n g f t m a y b e c n d r e d  
t h a i m a g e a t a n e q u a l a n t d i s t a n c e u  
t h t h r d o f t h e d i s c a l n g a p e n d i c l r  
p r j t i n a n a l g u t i t h e s a m l i r o p t i c a l m a g e  
( s e e I A C E O P T I C A L ) T h e f l t s o f r e f l e c t g  
u f a c e n a s t o w a v e s f r e q u e n t l y a n b e p  
d c t d b y t h e u s e f s c h i m a g A n e i n f n t  
c e t e a d m a r y r f l c t 97.99% o f i d t  
u n d e y ) w l l h a e a i m a g e o f t e n g t h  
a l m t e q u a l t t a t o f t h e u c i b a t i g i n  
p h e w t h t h o u c e T o o b t a i n t h e t a l e f f e c t t  
a n y p a r t d u e t o t h m b n d a c t i o n o f a u r e  
a n d s u c h a e f f t i n g u f a e t h e f l e c t d u e t o t h  
s o r c e t e l l d t h e r w o u e f e q u a l s t r n g t h  
p l e d t h i m a g p o t m a d d e d I t h r e i

d r e f l e c t s g u f a c e p r e n t t h a l l e d  
f i t d e m a g e w i l l h a n i m g e a l l e d t h  
c o n d r d i m o f t h e i r c e a t a n q u a l n t  
d t a c e o t h e o t h r d e o f t h d r f l i n g  
u f e S m i l a l y a n i m a g f t h e e o n d o r d  
m g e s a d t b e a t h d o d e m a g d o o n  
A l t h g h t m t h o d p e s e l y w h e n t h e r e  
f l i n g f a s n b t p a s s o i t n f  
d e r a b l e h e l p i n v e s t g a t s o f t h e a c t i n f  
c o u d w e s i n c o o m S A R C H I T E C T U R A L A C O U  
T I C S [ C M H ]

# Image optical

A n o p t c a l i m g e t h i m a g f r m d b y t h l g h t  
r s f r o m a s e l f l m u n i l l m a t d o b j t  
t h a t t r e n p t i a l y i m t h m g s a d  
t b e a l f t h e l i g h t y u m i f o u s  
n t h m a g e i l a d r t a l i f t h r a y s e m t o  
o m f i n a p o t w i t h i n t h e i n t r u m e t ( e e l l s  
t t )

T h o p t a l m a g f n h y e t s g a n b y t h e  
l i g h t d i s t r i b u t i o n i n t h m g e p l a n m i g f m  
c h p a r t o f t h o b j e c t a t t h i m a g p l a n e o f n  
o p t l a t m T h e d l i m g o f p o i n t a c r d  
i g t g e o m t r a l o p t s h i a n e d w h e n l l r y s



(a) Real image Rays leaving object point  $Q$  and passing through the refracting surface separating media  $n$  and  $n'$  are brought to a focus at the image point  $Q'$ .  
(b) Virtual image Rays leaving  $Q$  and refracted by the concave spherical surface separate and appear to be coming from the virtual image point  $Q'$ . As they emerge they cannot be focused at any point (Modified from F. A. Jenkins and H. E. White, *Fundamentals of Optics*, 3rd ed. McGraw-Hill 1957).

from an object point unite in a single image point. However, diffraction theory teaches that in this case the image is not a point but a minute disk. The diameter of this disk is about  $1.22\lambda/A$ , where  $\lambda$  is the wavelength of the light considered and  $A$  is the numerical aperture, the largest cone angle on the image side multiplied by its refractive index (which is usually equal to unity).

**Aberrations** From the standpoint of geometrical optics, if this most desirable type of image formation cannot be achieved, the next best objective is to have the image free from all but aperture errors (spherical aberration). In this case the light distribution in the image plane is still circular, resembling the point image; there is a true coordination of object point and image, although the image may be slightly unsharp. If the aperture error are small and the image is viewed from a distance, such an image formation may be very satisfactory.

Asymmetry and deformation error may be very disturbing if not held in check, because the light distribution of the image of a point in this case has a decidedly undesirable shape.

When the image of an axial point is considered, the rays through any fixed aperture circle converge to the axial point. For this type of imagery, the term *sharp image* will be used. A small object at the object point is then imaged by a circular pupil at the focus of the bundle with a magnification

$$m = (n' \sin u') / (n \sin u)$$

where  $u$  and  $u'$  are the angles of the imaging cone in object and image space respectively, and  $n$  and  $n'$  are the corresponding refractive indices.

If the axial point is sharply imaged, an object of finite extent is sharply imaged if and only if  $m = m'$  (the Gaussian magnification) for all values of  $u$  (sine condition).

In the case of aperture errors, the most desirable image formation is attained when the different images appear under the same angle from the exit pupil. If  $K'$  is the distance of the image point on the exit pupil,  $\Delta s$  is the aperture aberration, and

$$\Delta m = \frac{n' \sin u'}{n \sin u} - m$$

is the magnification error compared with the magnification  $m$  on the axis, the condition is

$$\Delta s / K' - \Delta m / m = \text{constant}$$

The fulfillment of this condition gives equal imagery for an object near the axis of a system with rotation symmetry.

Corresponding conditions can be ascertained for the image of an off-axis element if all the asymmetry errors and deformation errors are balanced. See **ABERRATION OPTICAL**.

**Resolution** Two points are resolved by an optical system if the two images lie apart. Photometric analysis of an image may show the existence of two object points even if their images overlap but in such an analysis not only the imagery but also the illumination of the object play a role.

In interference experiments, it is found that the image of two self-luminous points (that is, two light sources that are sufficiently separated) is incoherent; that is, the intensities of the two beams are simply added. If the two object points are illuminated by the same light source however, the phase relation of the light at the two points has to be taken into consideration. This is of the greatest importance for microscopes and telescopes, which image very small or distant objects. In this case, an artificial change of phase by plates and apodization may improve resolution. See **DIFFRACTION RESOLVING POWER (OPTICS)**.

Resolving power is not the only consideration in image formation. The eye recognizes only contrast difference, and therefore objects may not be discerned if the contrast difference is too small. Again, for the image of a point or an object illuminated by a point light source, mean can be found to change the apparent contrast, making it possible to discern illogical objects. For example, a large small difference of refractive index.

**Image analysis** In recent times, methods have been suggested for obtaining information about optical images by means of a variety of analytical techniques. Imaged by an optical system, a sinusoidal image altered in phase and amplitude. A large number of sinusoidal test objects with different frequencies (number of maxima per millimeter) are imaged, and the amplitude and phase are measured.

The curves of amplitude versus frequency are measured for resolving power and contrast as a function of the frequency of the test object with a

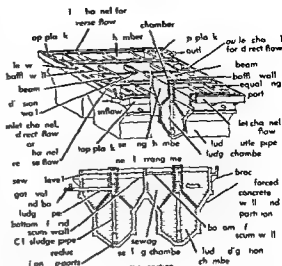
the d j ted e rv of ph fr q e cv de  
r be the l a k f symmetry 1 the ima = These  
ampl de-leq ncy urves n bemes ued a well  
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c [XII]  
B M g phy M Herzberger Mode n Ge metri  
cal Opt cs 1938

## Image orthicon

A hgh it t telev cam ra t be th t c n  
be ued t pck p c es f widely aryng light  
l ex l t sed gly f m chr met lev n  
r set f the f r c l tel A o d n ry  
am r l p o d n opt l m g of the e e  
be g l ev sed a t e ph to el ctr u r f c  
t e d f the tube Ph to elect n ele d  
f m the b o k f thi ur f c re elect ally fo  
ed n e o s d of ep ate t r g target.  
Th th d of the tag t c u ed by n ele  
t be m p o d ed by n elect o gun t the f r  
d l th t b Be m el ctro s re reflected back  
f m th tag t s y p r t t the h ge t a h  
po t th t r g t m ge and a e e t r n e d t  
elect n m l p l n d ng the ele t o g  
Th l r multiple ampl f the sgn l m s y  
th d f m t p o d e th de tput s g  
a l f the am = t be Image rthi s are ued  
n l r d t t l e v n f r b th s door a d o t  
door e t S TELEVISIO CAMER TLBE. [JMR.]

## Imhoff tank

A e get atme t a k med a fte to dev l p r  
k l m h f l m h f t n k d f f r m s p t t k  
th at d g t n k p l e a e p at m p r t  
m t f m th t n whi h t l e m e t o c Th  
t k f w n t o d e n th U t d St t 190/  
d w w d l y d a p m r y t t m e t p  
d l o p d g t k l n g f l t e Devel p  
m t m echa zed q s p m t h a l e s s e d t  
pop l t y b t t i l l e d m b t n  
t f a c t l g w g d d g e t g l d g  
T l m h f t k t r u t e d w th f l w g  
th g h m b e t p d h d g t h m b e  
th l t m Th p p e h m b e d e s g n e d  
c o l g t h p p l e s f e d m e t t t  
l d d p t h b o t t m f t h e t k d h g h  
l t l g t l g h t t h l w h m b e A s  
d g r e t k k p l s e m s f r m e d by s g  
l l g h h g t p p e d Th m h m b e  
k t t h d e c t l t h e t k l o c t d  
l t h l w h m b e d b e c d th p p  
h m l A g e e s p l d g f m th m  
h m b e r t m t h l w h m b e Th l t  
m t t e d t h p r t l t t h g h t  
A t g l d w l d f t e b e l w th l t p  
t r t l g f g l d l d S l d g  
h l h m b e t l e a t h b o t t m w h t  
b e f r m f m t e e p l p e d h p p e  
A t r r l t h l d g b e w t h d w Th r  
l l h g h t f t h t k 30-40 f t d l l g  
l e p e l l e d l h y d l p e s r f t h w t r  
th f r e t k l a g t k t b l w th m  
t e s g l w th p p e h m b e th m k



Typ l l g l m h f t k ( f m H E S b b H d  
E R B m S w g d S w g T e m l B h  
d W l y 1958)

1 g t p b l e t d t r b t the et t l e d s m r e  
e v l y e r t h e d i g e t i o c h a m b r

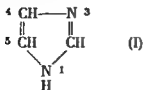
Imhoff tank design Dete t n p e i o d the p  
pe chambe is u ally b o t 24 h s The sur f ce  
n l g r a t u s l y 600 gal/(ft ) (day) Th  
w = e f l w t e n o t e 10 000 g l / f t of w e i  
p r d a y V e l o i t y of f l w i h e l d b e l o w 1 f t / e c  
T n k a d m e n e d w t h l e g i t h w d t h r t i o f  
5 1-3 l a s d w t h d p h t l o t b o u t q a l t  
w i d t h M u l t p l e u n i t s r e b l t r a t h e r t h a n o n  
l g e t a n k t = r r y t h e n t r e f l w T w o f l w i g  
t h o u g h c h m b e r s a n b e p l c d b o e n d g e t e  
u t Th d g e t o n h a m b s n o r m a l l y d e s g n e d  
t 3-5 f t p r e c p t of a n c i e d e w a g e l o a d  
W h i d t l w t e t l d l a g q t i e of  
o l d a d d t l f l o w c e m u t b e m a d e O r d  
r i l y s l u d w i t h d w a l = h e d l e d t w i c e p r  
y a I f t h e s e t b l e f r e q n t i c a e  
p s t y s d e s r a b l e S o m c h m b e r s h a v e b e e n  
p d e d w t h p t 65 f t p r e c p t Th m  
h m b e h l d h a r f a c 25 30' of t h  
h z o t a l r f a f t h d g e t n h a m b e v n t s  
l i l d b 24 s w d e T p f e e b d h l d b e a t  
l t 2 f t o t r g m W a t e d p r e s  
r e m t b e l b l e t m b t f o a m g d  
k n o c k d w n m

Efficiency Th e n c y f l m h f t k i q i  
l t o t h t f l p l e d m e t a t a k E f f i  
a e t i l f r t m e n t t r i c k l g f l t e The  
s l d g d d w h e n w t h d w n the m o i t r e  
t t m a y b e f r m 90-9' l m h f l d e h a  
h a a c t a t e t l k e o d d a b l a c k g r n u l  
p p l t d l y n d w h d r y s o m  
p r t l y o d l e s I t e l l n t h m b t  
t a f e l l r C a e n t s m y o c c a l l y g e  
f l f d o d r s [W r r]

## Imidazole

O l g r p f r g h e t o c c l e m p d  
( l o o l l e d m r o l e s g l y x l e s d 1,3-d  
l e s ) t g f l m e m b e r e d d i a t e d

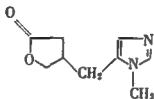
ring with two nonadjacent nitrogen atoms as part of the ring. Imidazole (I) is a typical member of the group (see AZOLE. HETEROCYCLIC COMPOUNDS). The imidazole ring system is found in a number of



natural product for example in the  $\alpha$ -amino acid histidine (II) and in the alkaloid pilocarpine (III). Histamine (IV) is associated with



(II)



(III)



(IV)

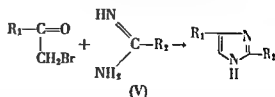
allergic response and ostensibly is the biological target against which the antagonistic action of synthetic antihistamines is directed. The biologically important purine system contains an imidazole ring fused to pyrimidine. The imidazole ring present in enzyme proteins as the histidine side chain is involved in enzyme catalyzed reaction primarily by serving as an efficient acyl transfer agent. The same kind of imidazole ring in the blood protein globin effectively holds heme and globin together by coordinating with the iron atom of the heme.

**Properties and preparation.** Imidazole itself (I) is a water soluble solid, mp 90°C, which is basic enough (pK<sub>a</sub> 6.95 at 25°C) to form stable salts with both organic and inorganic acids. Imidazole is also weakly acidic since the hydrogen at the 1 position may be replaced by metal. The low volatility of imidazole (bp 256°C) is indicative of considerable association by intermolecular hydrogen bonding.

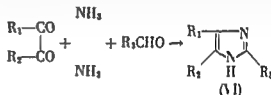
Imidazole is a resonance system showing the chemical behavior of a moderately aromatic ring. The system is stable to oxidation by nitric acid, hexavalent chromium, and alkaline permanganate, and it is in general resistant to ring reduction. An amino group at position 4 may be diazotized normally. Imidazole undergoes electrophilic substitution such as bromination, nitration, or sulfonation at position 4, and azo coupling at position 2. The imidazole ring is opened by attack of peroxide and peracid. Alkylation of nitrogen is possible to give first 1-alkylimidazole and then 1,3-dialkylimidazole.

lum cations. Hot alkali disrupts the ring in the quaternary imidazolium compounds.

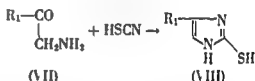
Several general methods of synthesis are known. Combination of  $\alpha$ -halo ketones with amidines (V)



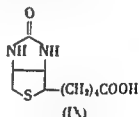
gives imidazoles, a process emphasizing the amidine structure of imidazole.  $\alpha$ -Dicarbonyl compounds react with ammonia and aldehyde to give



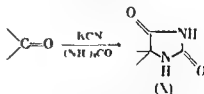
imidazoles (VI). Further  $\alpha$ -aminoketone or aldehydes (VII) condense with thiocyanate to give 2-mercaptoimidazoles (VIII).



**Important derivatives.** Imidazoline and imidazolidines are the name assigned to dihydro- and tetrahydroimidazoles, respectively. Such compounds are generally formed by ring closure processes involving positions 1, 2, or 3. Ring carbonyl derivatives are known. Biotin (IX), for example, is a condensed 2-imidazolidone.



Hydantoins or 2,4-diketimidazolidines (X) are prepared by condensation of a ketone or aldehyde

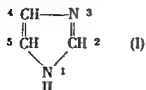


with potassium cyanide and ammonium carbonate. Hydantoins have been studied extensively in connection with the physiological activity of 5,5-disubstituted derivatives and because of the possibility of converting hydantoins to  $\alpha$ -amino acids. The 5,5-diphenyl derivative Dilantin sodium (XI) is used as an anti-epileptic agent in treatment of epilepsy. The 5-ethyl-5-phenyl derivative Arvanol

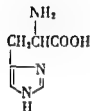




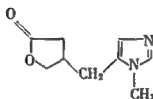
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(II)



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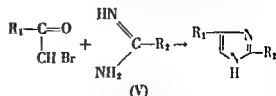
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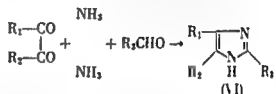
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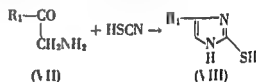
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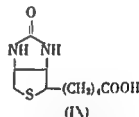
gives imidazoles a process emphasizing the amidine structure of imidazole. Dicarboxyl compounds react with ammonia and aldehydes to give



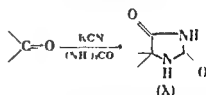
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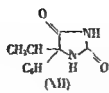
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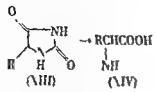
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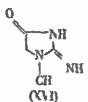
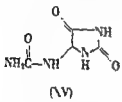
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(XIII) an eff t hyp t c Complet t dr l  
 i fhyda t m g m t s an α am no a id (XIII-  
 XIV) Thi ute c n t t e on of the tand rd



synth f α am a d 13-Dib omo- and  
 13-dichl o-5-dimethylhyd t n a e c e n t  
 e f t e h a l g e  
 Alla t r 5 u d h y d n t (XV) i t h e  
 nd pr d c t of pu m t b l m m m o t m a m



m l (but i l d n g m a n) a d i t e m e d  
 t i t h p u n m a b l m f c u t a c n s n d  
 ampb C r t n e (XVI) f r m e d r r b l y  
 n t h b o d y f m r t n d x e r t e d  
 B b l g p h y R C F l d f l d (e d) H e t c v  
 d C m p u d 15 197 k H f m l m d  
 d u D i t P i l 1953

**Immunity**

A i r m e d n m d m t d e o t e a t a t f r e  
 t n c e t n g n t h p a t t h a t n o m a l l y  
 p o d m a f c t o n t n e o m o h t s p c i e  
 i m m u n s o m p l r h n t f m a n y c o m  
 p o e t m n a t e d h d i b l t h e s c  
 q u e d a a f t e a i t a l n t c t w i t h t h e p t h o-

**Natural immunity** D m t c a t s l i k n e a l y l l  
 m m m l e v t a i m e a l s t h y a n n u  
 l l y i e p t i b l f t a t h u m a n d m n  
 k i n x p i m t a l b r a d l a q u e t h e  
 d u e b t f t i g l f t n q u e t e a l l y  
 r e v t u b a q n t f t n l t e m a k a b i t h a t  
 m i l d g h m r e g e r l l y n e p  
 t b l t e s t h m t u n t p l n t p t h o n d  
 p l t l k w i u p t b l t a m a l p t i o  
 A t f t o n t e t n g h t m n r e p t i n  
 k w n e t h b a t e r i P d m n a  
 p r c v a w i l l f t b o u p l n t n d m n  
 Th d t o n f p m n t b e t a k e t  
 c u n t n a l y n g n a t u r l m m n t f r m  
 p l e m o f k n w i c t a t p u m o l  
 p m d r n o i r l n d t o n n d n o

mal m e e m a y b k e p t m d f n i t e l y w i t h o u t i n f c  
 t i o n i n c a g e s f i l l e d w i t h m i c e l y i n g o f a n e x  
 p e r i m e n t a l p n e u m o c c a l i n f e c t i o n T h e n a t u r a l  
 b a r r i e r t o a c q u i r i n g o r t r a n s m i t t i n g t h d i s e a e a p  
 p e a r a b s o l u t e h e r e n e v e r t h e l e s i f t h e e l a r r i e r s  
 a r e b y p a s s e d b y t h e i n t r a p r i t n e a l i n j e c t i o n o f  
 e n o c e r i u s l e n t r g a m t h e m o r e i t b e c o m e s  
 x c e e d i n g l y s e c e p t i b l e t o a f a t a l i n f e c t i o n

**Immunity mechanisms** A n m a d i n g p a t h g e n  
 m a y f a i l t o w n a f o t h o l d b e c a u s e t h e e n v i r o n m e n t  
 l a c k o f e m o r e g r o w t h f a c t o r o r p h y s i c a l c o n  
 d i t i o n s n e c e s s a y f o r m u l t i p l i c a t i o n a s i n t h e c a s e  
 o f a n d e n i n e r e q u i r i n g e n t e r i c b a t e i m t a n c a n  
 n t i n f c t t h m e u n l e s t h e h e m o c l a d i n e s  
 a l o i n j e c t e d A l t n a t e l y t h e n a t u r a l r e s i s t a n c e  
 o f d o g t o s t r a x a p p e a r s t o b e d u e t o a c t i v e  
 d i f f u s i o n o f t h e o r g a n i m l y b u t n e e u n i  
 f o r m l y p r e e n t i n d g i u

S i m e b a i r s u c h a s k n o r t h e m u c u s m e m  
 b a n e o f t h e n a s l a n d r i r a t o r y t r a t m a y  
 m e c h a n i c a l l y p r e e n t e n t r a n c e o f m i c r o o r g a n i m  
 o t h e y m a y c o n t a i n c h i m i c a l e m p n e n t t h a t p r e  
 e n t m u l t i p l i c a t i o n o f b a c t e r i a r a c t i v e l y d e t r o y  
 t h m E n i f t h e y d o n o t c o n t i t u t e a b l u t e l a r  
 r i r b t h a t o n m y d d a y t h p r o c e s s o f i n f e c t i o n  
 u n t i l o t h e r d e f e n s e c a n b e l i g h t n t  
 p l a y F o e m o s t m g t h e c a t h e v a r i u s f i x e d  
 n d w a n d r i g c e l l s t h a t c o m p r i s e t h p h a g o c y t e  
 s y s t e m s T h e r a c t i o n a r e c o m p l e (1) t h e y m a y  
 e n g l f a d d e s t o y c e r t a i m r r g s m s d i  
 r e t l y o (2) t h e y m a y e g l f a n d k i l l o t h e r  
 i u l t o o g a n i m s o n l y f a i d e d b y a c e r y h u  
 m a l f f e r s u c h a s t b o d y a n d c o m p l e m e n t  
 a d (3) i n o t h e r c a s e s w h i l e t h e y m a y e n g u l f  
 m o r e n g n m s h a t t h g n o c o c c u s t h e l a t t e r  
 m a y t h n e r a s t h e c h l c u f r m t h e a c c e s s  
 r y u b t a n a r m e t m e x c h e m o t r a p e u t i c  
 d r u g s a n d t h d e s e m m a y t h e n p r o g r e s s t a  
 c l m a t a t A t b i y i m p l e m e n t a n d t h r e  
 e n t l y d e s c r b e d p o p d m a y h e l p n o l y t o  
 p r p a m c r o o g n i m f e e f f e c t p h a g o c y t o s  
 b u t l m y h a e d e c t b a c t e r i c a l e f f e c t b y  
 t h e m e l S e A n t i b o d y C o m p l e m e n t (S e r u m)  
 P r o p e r d i

A l t h u t t h e r o u c h e m i c a l a n d m h a n a l  
 b a e r t h e p h a g o c y t e s i m a n d t h h m o a l  
 f a t s p p e r t o c n t i t u t e t h e c t v m e h i s m  
 b y w h i h l e l f i m m u n t v s a h e d t h e i  
 q a l t i e a n d q u a n t i t a t i a c t i v i t y a r e g v e r n e d  
 b y a v a r i e t y o f t h o t f a t o r s a m o n g w h i h a  
 g n e t c o m p o n e n t h a b i d e n t i f i e d W h i l e t h i s  
 d i f f i c u l t t o l u t e f o m a n s t a t i a l d e  
 s g g e t h t o u s u e p t i b l i t y t r e u m a t i s f e e r  
 p o l y m i t s t u b r l o s l p r o y a n d v a j o u  
 a l l e g e s i n f l u e n c e d b y h r e d t y M o d i s  
 e v i d e n f a g n e t f c t i m m u n i t y h a s c m  
 f o m e x p e r i m e n t w i t h a m a l a d p l n t C o p  
 w t h g r t e s s t n e t o w h t r u s t s d o t h  
 d a e a r m p r i t n t r e u l t s f a g r i t u r l r e  
 h A g d t t r e s h m o n e s u h a A C T H  
 a d e r t o s e a n d r a d a t i o n a l s o h a m e a u r a b l e  
 i s u n s n m m i t y S e H o r m o n e P h a g o c y  
 t o s i s

**Immunity and irradiation** Although there are suggestions from conflicting data that small doses of x rays may enhance immunity to certain bacterial infection, there is general agreement that larger doses greatly increase the susceptibility to infection and that this result contributes importantly to death from radiation. The mechanisms appear to be multiple and may involve impairments of the phagocytic mechanism, failure of antibody synthesis, or an increased host sensitivity to the bacterial toxins elaborated. In keeping with this, a significant increase in survival to otherwise lethal doses of x rays may be achieved by administration of antibiotics. The decrease in antibody synthesis after irradiation has been followed in immunization studies. The time relations are complex; syntheses appear to be at a minimum about 24 hours following irradiation, are restored rapidly during the first week, and completely in 4-8 weeks. Nearly complete restoration of antibody synthesis may be achieved rapidly if the irradiated animal are given certain tissue or bone marrow preparations or are injected with a yeast extract. See ANTIBIOTIC TOXIN BACTERIAL.

**Acquired immunity** That antibody is at least one component and often the principal component in immunity is indicated by the following observations: (1) a correlation exists in many natural and experimental infections between high susceptibility to an invading microorganism and the initial lack of antibody to that organism; (2) heightened resistance to infection is often present after recovery from a first attack; this resistance usually being accompanied by the appearance of antibody and quantitatively declining with time in some proportion to the decline of the antibody level; (3) both the resistance and the specific antibody level may again be increased by vaccination or other renewed contact with the original microorganism; (4) there is decline and often virtual disappearance of resistance to invasion under condition that hinder or prevent antibody formation such as x-irradiation, hemorrhage, administration of vitamin deficiency or thymic atrophy, agammaglobulinemia; (5) a substantial increase in specific resistance is often afforded by the passive transfer of the corresponding antibody from the serum of a donor animal; and (6) bacterial reaction exists in the body of a *gamma globulinemia* vaccinee.

**Active immunity** The duration of the heightened period of resistance that follows a first attack of an infectious disease or a prophylactic vaccination varies with the particular agent and to some extent with the individual subject. Recovery from certain viral diseases such as yellow fever, measles, and chickenpox usually attended by a lifelong immunity effect is under the condition of natural exposure. At other extreme immunity following recovery from the common cold is very brief and often transient. In many bacterial diseases such as pneumococcal pneumonia or diphtheria effects of immunity extend only for a few years.

he t unle a renewed antigenic stimulus, applied. This is often accomplished naturally through the carrier state in which either virulent or non-virulent but immunizing train are harbored by the subject without evidence of clinical disease. Under favorable conditions the carrier state may also effect a primary immunity.

As a peculiar case immunity to new infection (superinfection) may hold only as long as the original infection persists. This is known as infection immunity or premunity. All in certain cases infection with one viral species may temporarily prevent establishment of a second infection with a related virus or a more virulent strain of the original virus, a phenomenon known as virus interference.

**Immunization** It is an objective of preventive medicine to produce a prophylactic immunity through vaccination without the inconvenience and often danger of an initial attack of the disease. The oldest procedure vaccination against smallpox was introduced by C. Jenner in 1768. It employs a living agent a calf-pox antigenically related to the smallpox virus. Living attenuated vaccines against tuberculosis, yellow fever and bubonic plague have also been widely employed. Nonliving vaccines are commonly used for the prophylaxis of the bacterial diseases pertussis, typhoid and cholera, the viral diseases influenza and poliomyelitis (Salk vaccine) and the bacterial intoxication of diphtheria, tetanus and tularemia. Repeated booster doses of vaccine are commonly given from 15 years after the first immunization course or oftener under conditions of peculiar risk.

**Passive immunization** Since antibody is not formed in response to an antigen until some weeks or months after birth, the newborn would be at a disadvantage unless the transfer of antibody were provided for. In human and in some animals this occurs during pregnancy through the placental transfer across the placenta of antibody circulating in the maternal blood. In other animals antibody is transferred via the first milk (colostrum) taken after birth. These antibodies are only slowly eliminated.

pla 1 a tran fer of anti bod y may al l ar m  
 phed arti ficial ly when there n d c f p e f  
 prote t n within the l t w l n r mally re p r e t  
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tem the unit is the dyne second/centimeter. See SOUND PRESSURE

Specific acoustic impedance is the complex ratio of the effective sound pressure at a point to the effective particle velocity at a point. The unit is the newton second/meter<sup>2</sup> or the mks rayl. In the cgs system the unit is the dyne second/centimeter<sup>2</sup> or the rayl. The difference between specific acoustic impedance and acoustic impedance is in the specification of impedance at a point as compared to the average over a surface. The specific acoustic impedance is generally employed in acoustical analyses with the acoustic impedance being computed from it when required.

Characteristic acoustic impedance is the ratio of effective sound pressure at a point to the particle velocity at that point in a free progressive wave. This ratio is equal to the product of the density of the medium  $\rho_0$  times the speed of sound  $c$  in the medium. The characteristic impedance of a sound wave is analogous to the characteristic electrical impedance of an infinitely long dispersionless transmission line. It is common in acoustical analyses to represent specific acoustic impedances in terms of their ratio to the characteristic impedance of air. For example, the specific acoustic impedance  $Z$  of a heavy drapery material may be written as  $Z = 2\rho_0 c$  meaning that it is twice the characteristic impedance of air.

**Impedance analogies** Acoustic impedance being a complex quantity can have real and imaginary components analogous to those in an electrical impedance. Following this analogy the real part of the acoustic impedance is termed acoustic resistance and the imaginary part is termed acoustic reactance. See IMPEDANCE ELECTRICAL.

The analogy between acoustic and electrical impedances is extremely useful in the solution of many acoustical problems because it permits the analysis to be conducted by the technique of electrical circuit theory. In the electrical sound pressure is usually taken as analogous to voltage and volume velocity is taken as analogous to current. Employing the electrical variational part of acoustical circuits can be associated directly with their electrical counterparts.

Acoustic resistance is associated with the dissipation occurring when there is a viscous movement of a quantity of gas through a thin tube or mesh. It is directly analogous to electrical resistance.

Acoustic mass is associated with a mass of air accelerated by a net force which acts to displace the gas without appreciably compressing it. It is analogous to the inductance.

Acoustic compliance is associated with a volume of air that is compressed by a net force without an appreciable average displacement. The center of gravity of the air in the volume acts as a capacitor. Both acoustic mass and acoustic compliance are reactive parts of a acoustic impedance in analogy to their electrical counterparts.

**Examples of reactances** As simple examples of acoustical reactance consider the low frequency approximation to the impedances of an open ended tube and that of a simple container having a given volume. Neglecting end correction the impedance of the tube is an acoustic mass  $M$  given by

$$M = \frac{\rho_0 l}{S}$$

where  $\rho_0$  is the density of air,  $l$  is the length of the tube and  $S$  is its cross sectional area. The impedance of the container is an acoustic compliance  $C$  given by

$$C = \frac{V}{\rho_0 c^2}$$

where  $V$  is the volume,  $\rho_0$  the density of air and  $c$  the velocity of sound.

The absorption of sound by a material is often described in terms of its acoustical impedance. For example, the absorption coefficient  $\alpha$  of a material exposed to a normally incident plane wave of sound in air is given by the equation

$$\alpha = 1 - \left( \frac{Z - \rho_0 c}{Z + \rho_0 c} \right)^2$$

where  $Z$  is the specific acoustic impedance at the surface of the material and  $\rho_0 c$  is the characteristic impedance of air. See ABSORPTION (SOUND).

[WJG]

*Bibliography* L. L. Beranek, *Acoustics* 1954.

## Impedance electrical

The total opposition that a circuit presents to an alternating current. Impedance measured in ohms may include resistance  $R$ , inductive reactance  $X_L$  and capacitive reactance  $X_C$ . (See REACTANCE ELECTRICAL.)

The series RLC circuit has the impedance

$$Z = \sqrt{R^2 + (X_L - X_C)^2} \quad \text{ohm (magnitude)}$$

In terms of complex quantities the impedance is

$$Z = R + j(X_L - X_C)$$

The two components of  $Z$  are at right angle to each other in an impedance diagram. Therefore impedance always has an associated angle

$$\theta = \arctan \frac{X_L - X_C}{R}$$

The angle is called the phase angle or power factor angle of the circuit. The current lags or leads the voltage by angle  $\theta$  depending upon whether  $X_L$  is greater than  $X_C$  or less than  $X_C$ .

Impedance may also be defined as the ratio of the rms voltage to the rms current  $Z = E/I$ . This is a form of Ohm's law for ac circuit. For further discussion of impedance see ALTERNATING CURRENT CIRCUIT THEORY. [HJR]

## Impedance mechanical

For a system in simple harmonic motion the mechanical impedance is the ratio of force to particle velocity. If the force is that which drives the system and the velocity is that of the point of application of the force, the ratio is the input driving point impedance. If the velocity is that at some other point the ratio is the transfer impedance and corresponds to the two points.

As the electrical impedance to which it is analogous, mechanical impedance is a complex quantity. The real part is the mechanical resistance dependent of frequency if the displacement is sinusoidal. The imaginary part is the mechanical reactance, a function of frequency becoming negative at the resonant and inductive at the antiresonant frequency of the system. See **FORCED OSCILLATION HARMONIC MOTION IMPEDANCE**, A. OLSTIC, **IMPEDANCE ELECTRICAL**. [McGR.]

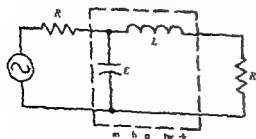
B. J. Blogg, *Phys. N. W. M. Lachlan, Theory of* b. trans. 1951.

## Impedance matching

The effect of circuit and devices to establish the condition which the impedance is adjusted to the internal impedance of the source. The device is used to match the impedances for the maximum transfer of power from the source to the load and to transmit the maximum power to the load. The device is used to match the impedances for the maximum transfer of power from the source to the load.

The maximum power transfer theorem of electrical circuits states that in any linear network the maximum power is transferred from the source to the load when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the source impedance. The effect of the circuit is to match the load to the source. The maximum power is transferred from the source to the load when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the source impedance. The effect of the circuit is to match the load to the source.

Impedance matching network. A network which adjusts the impedance of a load to the impedance of a source. A network which adjusts the impedance of a load to the impedance of a source.



L-sec m f p w k

inductors and capacitors may be inserted between the load and the generator to adjust the generator impedance to the conjugate of the load impedance. The matching network is composed of inductors and capacitors which in the ideal case of no resistance in the inductor and perfect capacitors do not absorb power. All of the power delivered to the matching network is delivered to the load. An example of an L-match network is illustrated. Matching network of this type is used in radio-frequency circuits. The value of inductance and capacitance are chosen to satisfy the requirements of the maximum power transfer theorem. The power dissipated in the matching network is a small fraction of that delivered to the load because the impedance of the load is much greater than the impedance of the matching network.

**Transformers** The impedance measured at the terminals of a winding of an iron-core transformer is approximately the algebraic sum of the impedance of the winding and the impedance of the load referred to the primary. The turns ratio can be chosen to match the load to the generator. The maximum power transfer is achieved when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the generator impedance. The L-match network is used to match the load to the generator. The turns ratio can be chosen to match the load to the generator. The maximum power transfer is achieved when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the generator impedance.

A network is used to match the load to the generator. The maximum power transfer is achieved when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the generator impedance. The effect of the circuit is to match the load to the source. The maximum power is transferred from the source to the load when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the source impedance. The effect of the circuit is to match the load to the source.

The impedance matching property of an iron-core transformer is not used to adjust the maximum power transfer. For amplifiers the design of the power amplifier stage and amplifiers the impedance of the load is adjusted to the impedance of the source. The maximum power transfer is achieved when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the source impedance. The effect of the circuit is to match the load to the source.

**Cathode follower** A circuit in which the output voltage is approximately equal to the input voltage. The impedance of the load is adjusted to the impedance of the source. The maximum power transfer is achieved when the load impedance is equal to the complex conjugate of the source impedance. The effect of the circuit is to match the load to the source.

on the unit: the dyn-second centimeter. See SOUND PRELTYPE.

Specific acoustic impedance: the complex ratio of the effective sound pressure at a point to the effective particle velocity at a point. The unit is the newton-second meter or the mks. rsl. In the cgs system the unit is the dyne-second centimeter or the rsl. The difference between specific acoustic impedance and acoustic impedance is in the specification of impedance at a point, as compared to the average over a wave. The specific acoustic impedance is generally employed in acoustical analyses, with the acoustic impedance being computed from it when required.

Characteristic acoustic impedance: the ratio of effective sound pressure at a point to the particle velocity at that point in a free, progressive wave. This ratio is equal to the product of the density of the medium  $\rho$  times the speed of sound  $c$  in the medium. The characteristic impedance of a sound wave is anal. gov. to the characteristic electrical impedance of an infinite long, dissipationless transmission line. It is common in acoustical analyses to represent specific acoustic impedances in terms of their ratio to the characteristic impedance of air. For example, the specific acoustic impedance  $Z$  of a heavy drapery material may be written as  $Z = 2\rho_0 c$ , meaning that it is twice the characteristic impedance of air.

Impedance analogies. Acoustic impedance, being a complex quantity, can have real and imaginary components anal. gov. to those in an electrical impedance. Following this analogy the real part of the acoustic impedance is termed acoustic resistance, and the imaginary part is termed acoustic reactance. **S. IMPEDANCE ELECTRICAL.**

The analogy between acoustic and electrical impedance is extremely useful in the solution of many acoustical problems because it permits the analogy to be conducted by the techniques of electrical circuit theory. In these analogies sound pressure is usually taken as anal. gov. to voltage and (time) current is taken as anal. gov. to current. Employing these analogies, any part of acoustical circuit can be associated directly with their electrical counterparts.

Acoustic resistance is associated with the dissipation losses occurring when there is a viscous movement of a quantity of gas through a thin tube or mesh. It is directly anal. gov. to electrical resistance.

Acoustic reactance is associated with the dissipationless behavior of a gas which acts to delay the gas with respect to compression and expansion behavior in an inductance.

Acoustic compliance is associated with the time delay that is encountered by a net force without an appreciable displacement of the center of gravity of the air in the lumped circuit. Both acoustic reactance and acoustic compliance are reactances and are associated with impedance in analogy to their electrical counterparts.

Examples of reactances. A simple example of acoustical reactances: consider the low-frequency approximation to the impedance of an open-ended tube and that of a simple container having a given volume. Neglecting end correction, the impedance of the tube is an acoustic mass  $M$  given by

$$M = \frac{\rho_0 l}{S}$$

where  $\rho_0$  is the density of air,  $l$  is the length of the tube, and  $S$  is its cross-sectional area. The impedance of the container is an acoustic compliance,  $C$ , given by

$$C = \frac{V}{\rho_0 c^2}$$

where  $V$  is the volume,  $\rho$  the density of air and  $c$  the velocity of sound.

The absorption of sound by a material is often described in terms of its acoustical impedance. For example, the absorption coefficient  $\alpha$  of a material exposed to a normally incident plane wave of sound in air is given by the equation

$$\alpha = 1 - \left( \frac{Z - \rho_0 c}{Z + \rho_0 c} \right)^2$$

where  $Z$  is the specific acoustic impedance at the surface of the material and  $\rho_0 c$  is the characteristic impedance of air. See ABORPTION (SOUND).

[W.J.G.]

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In terms of complex quantities, the impedance is

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The two components of  $Z$  are at right angles to each other in an impedance diagram. Therefore impedance also has an associated angle

$$\theta = \arctan \frac{X_L - X_C}{R}$$

The angle is called the phase, or power factor angle of the circuit. The current lags or leads the voltage by angle  $\theta$  depending upon whether  $X_L$  is greater than, or less than,  $X_C$ .

Impedance may also be defined as the ratio of the rms value of the rms current,  $Z = E / I$ . This is a form of Ohm's law for ac circuits. For further discussion of impedance see ALTERNATING CURRENT CIRCUIT THEORY. [E.L.M.]

## Impedance mechanical

For any system receiving mechanical power, the mechanical impedance is the ratio of force to velocity. If the force is that which drives the system and the velocity is that of the point of application of the force, then the ratio is the input or driving point impedance. If the velocity is that at another point, the ratio is the transfer impedance at that point.

A system's electrical impedance is which is mechanical impedance converted to a complex quantity. The real part of the mechanical reactance is independent of frequency, while the imaginary part, the mechanical reactance, varies with frequency. Because of the resonance and antiresonance at the system's frequency, the system is forced oscillation, harmonic motion, impedance of acoustic impedance, electrical. [MGR]

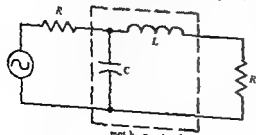
Bibliography: W. McLachlan, *Theory of Vibration*, 1951.

## Impedance matching

The following conditions and definitions tabulate the definitions which impedance of load, quality factor, and impedance of the source. The condition of impedance matching is valid for the maximum transfer of power from the source to the load in a transmission line. The condition is derived to determine maximum power transfer in the power amplifier circuit in a vacuum tube amplifier circuit.

The maximum power transfer theorem for electrical circuits states that at any given frequency the maximum power is transferred from the source to the load when the load impedance is the complex conjugate of the source impedance. This condition is true for all types of loads and must be satisfied for all types of loads. The condition is derived from the maximum power transfer theorem. The condition is derived from the maximum power transfer theorem. The condition is derived from the maximum power transfer theorem.

Impedance matching network. In general, the load impedance will be the proper value for maximum power transfer. A two-component



Load impedance matching network

ductors and capacitors may be inserted between the load and the generator to convert the generator to an impedance that is the conjugate of the generator impedance. Since the matching network is composed of elements which in the ideal case are lossless, the incident and reflected power are equal. The power delivered to the load is the power delivered to the matching network. An example of an L-match network is illustrated. The matching network is of the type used in radio-frequency circuits. The value of inductance and capacitance are chosen to satisfy the requirements of the maximum power transfer theorem. The power delivered in the matching network is a small fraction of that delivered to the load because the elements used are close approximations of ideal elements.

Transformers. The impedance measured at the terminals of one winding of an iron-core transformer is approximately the value of the impedance connected across the other terminals multiplied by the square of the turns ratio. This is the load and generator impedances are related as the turns ratio. The turns ratio is the ratio of the number of turns of the primary to the number of turns of the secondary. The turns ratio is the ratio of the number of turns of the primary to the number of turns of the secondary. The turns ratio is the ratio of the number of turns of the primary to the number of turns of the secondary.

The impedance of a transformer is determined by the frequency of the power delivered to the secondary. The frequency of the power delivered to the secondary is the frequency of the power delivered to the secondary. The frequency of the power delivered to the secondary is the frequency of the power delivered to the secondary. The frequency of the power delivered to the secondary is the frequency of the power delivered to the secondary.

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Cathode follower. In the triode connection, the output voltage is equal to the input voltage. The output voltage is equal to the input voltage. The output voltage is equal to the input voltage. The output voltage is equal to the input voltage.



the signal would result. To reduce this attenuation a cathode follower is connected between the source and the load. The input impedance of the cathode follower is high, more nearly matching the large source impedance, and the output impedance is low, more nearly matching the low load impedance. In the usual case the cathode follower appears as almost no load upon the signal source. If the object were the delivery of maximum power to the load, it might be possible to design the cathode follower to have an output resistance equal to the load resistance, a sum, that the load is a resistance. (Special audio amplifiers have been designed to use cathode followers rather than a transformer to connect the loudspeaker to the power amplifier. A number of cathode followers connected in parallel present an equivalent output resistance equal to the load resistance.) In many cases maximum power transfer is not the goal; the cathode follower is introduced primarily to reduce to a minimum the attenuation of the signal. See VOLTAGE AMPLIFIER [H F K]

Bibliography E. W. Kimbark, *Electrical Transmission of Power and Signals* 1949

## Impedance measurements high frequency

The electrical measurement of the complex ratio of voltage to current in a given circuit at frequencies from several hundred kilocycles (kc) to 100,000 megacycles (Mc). This frequency range includes the medium frequency band and higher frequency bands. See ELECTRICAL MEASUREMENTS.

At lower frequencies impedances may be accurately measured by standard techniques for measuring resistance, capacitance, and inductance. Standard resistors, capacitors, and inductors are often used as comparisons for unknown impedances; at lower frequencies these are very accurate standards. See CAPACITANCE MEASUREMENT, INDUCTANCE MEASUREMENT, RESISTANCE MEASUREMENT.

At higher frequencies the slight imperfections in impedance standards become objectionable and unwanted impedances occur in circuit connections. Distributed parameter impedance standards consisting of coaxial transmission lines are useful at frequencies at which the distinction between distributed and ideal parameters becomes hazy. At the higher frequency where mechanical dimensions become comparable with the wavelength, resonant cavities and wave guides are used because they incorporate simple boundary conditions for field calculation. Connection errors are avoided whenever possible by substitution measurements in which under-impedance are cancelled out. Two general methods are employed: resonance and null indication.

### RESONANCE METHODS

Resonance is a typical phenomenon at radio frequency. It is readily observed and reproduced and

defines a circuit condition for which the interrelationship among the component impedance is known. It is therefore an excellent indicator for measurement purposes. Either series resonant or parallel resonant circuits can be used. Series-resonant circuits are best suited for measuring low impedances and conversely parallel resonant circuits for low admittances. Both methods determine the quadrature or reactive component of impedance from the change in resonant capacitance when the unknown impedance is inserted into the circuit. They differ in the method of measurement of the real or resistive component of impedance. See RESONANCE (ALTERNATING CURRENT CIRCUITS).

**Series resonance methods.** Two methods of obtaining the necessary data to permit solving for the unknown impedance are employed.

**Resistance variation method.** A short circuiting link is first connected across the terminals shown in Fig. 1 and the circuit is tuned to resonance as indicated by a maximum current reading. This current  $I_1$  is then given by

$$I_1 = \frac{E}{R} \quad (1)$$

where  $E$  is the source voltage and  $R$  the total circuit resistance.

The short circuiting link is then replaced by the unknown impedance  $Z$  and resonance reestablished. The new current  $I_2$  is

$$I_2 = \frac{E}{R + R'} \quad (2)$$

where  $R'$  is the resistive component of the unknown impedance  $Z$ .

Finally the unknown impedance is replaced by a known standard resistance  $R$  and resonance is reestablished. The current  $I$  is

$$I = \frac{E}{R + R} \quad (3)$$

Combining Eqs. (1), (2), and (3) one obtains for the unknown resistance

$$R = R' \frac{I_2(I_1 - I_2)}{I_2(I_1 - I_2)} \quad (4)$$

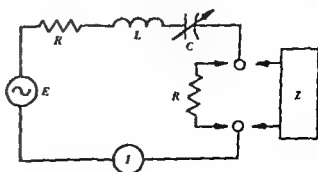


Fig. 1 Series resonance circuit for measurement of direct-current impedance

The unknown reactance  $X$  is given by

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left( \frac{1}{C} - \frac{1}{C'} \right) \quad (5)$$

where  $C_1$  and  $C$  are the capacitances of the variable capacitor in series with the short-circuiting link and the unknown impedance respectively at two different frequencies.

Resonance method. This method differs from the series method only in the measurement of the unknown reactance. The circuit is shown in Fig. 3. The circuit is a series combination of the unknown reactance  $X$  and the capacitor  $C$ .

The circuit is tuned to resonance and the unknown reactance  $X$  is determined. At the resonance frequency  $\omega$ , the reactance  $X$  is equal to the capacitive reactance  $X_C$ .

$$R = \frac{1}{2\omega} \left( \frac{1}{C} - \frac{1}{C'} \right) \quad (6)$$

A method with the help of a link in parallel with the unknown impedance  $Z$  is also possible. The circuit is shown in Fig. 4. The unknown impedance  $Z$  is in parallel with a variable capacitor  $C$ .

$$R = R_1 - R \quad (7)$$

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left( \frac{1}{C_1} - \frac{1}{C} \right) \quad (8)$$

Parallel resonance methods. The parallel resonance method is a method of measuring the unknown impedance  $Z$  by using a parallel combination of  $Z$  and a variable capacitor  $C$ .

Conductance method. This method is used for measuring the unknown conductance  $G$  and susceptance  $B$  of a two-terminal network.

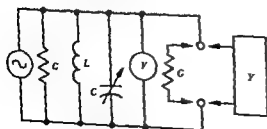


Fig. 2 Parallel resonance method circuit diagram

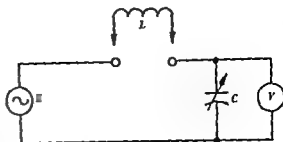


Fig. 3 Series resonance method circuit diagram

$$G = G_1 \frac{I_1(I_1 - I_2)}{I_2(I_1 - I_2)} \quad (9)$$

$$B = \omega(C_1 - C_2) \quad (10)$$

where the subscripts refer to the three measurements.

Susceptance method. This method is the dual of the conductance method. The circuit is shown in Fig. 5. The unknown susceptance  $B$  is in parallel with a variable capacitor  $C$ .

$$G = \frac{\omega}{L} (C - C') \quad (11)$$

The admittance of the network in the circuit is given by

$$G = G_1 - G \quad (12)$$

$$B = \omega(C_1 - C) \quad (13)$$

The above methods are accurate results with fairly simple equipment but are not readily made direct reading and are therefore not used as the basis for commercial instruments.

Resonant rise method. A circuit that has been widely used commercially to measure the storage factor  $Q$  of coils is shown in Fig. 3. Commercially the instrument known as a  $Q$ -meter (see  $Q$ -METER). The circuit is shown in Fig. 3.

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

and the voltage across the tuning capacitor  $C$  is

$$V = IX_C = IX_L \quad (14)$$

where  $R$  is the total circuit resistance and  $X_L$  and  $X_C$  are the reactances of the inductor  $L$  and capacitor  $C$  respectively. The voltage ratio  $V/E$  is the  $Q$ -factor.

$$\frac{V}{E} = \frac{X_L}{R} \quad (15)$$

If the reactance and inductance of the coil are small compared with the resistance and inductance of the circuit, the  $Q$ -factor will be directly proportional to the storage factor.

the signal would result. To reduce this attenuation a cathode follower is connected between the source and the load. The input impedance of the cathode follower is high more nearly matching the large source impedance and the output impedance is low more nearly matching the low load impedance. In the usual case the cathode follower appears as almost no load upon the signal source. If the object were the delivery of maximum power to the load it might be possible to design the cathode follower to have an output resistance equal to the load resistance assuming that the load is a resistance. (Special audio amplifiers have been designed to use cathode followers rather than a transformer to connect the loudspeaker to the power amplifier. A number of cathode followers connected in parallel present an equivalent output resistance equal to the load resistance.) In many cases maximum power transfer is not the goal; the cathode follower is introduced primarily to reduce to a minimum the attenuation of the signal. See VOLTAGE AMPLIFIER [HFK]

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At higher frequencies the slight imperfections in impedance standard become objectionable and unwanted impedances occur in circuit connections. Distributed parameter impedance standard consisting of coaxial transmission lines are useful at frequencies at which the distinction between desired and residual parameters becomes hazy. At the highest frequencies where mechanical dimensions become comparable with the wavelength resonant cavities and wave guides are used because they incorporate simple boundary conditions for field calculation. Connection error are avoided whenever possible by substitution measurements in which undesired impedances are cancelled out. Two general methods are employed: resonance and null indication.

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$$I_1 = \frac{E}{R} \quad (1)$$

where  $E$  is the source voltage and  $R$  the total circuit resistance.

The short circuiting line is then replaced by the unknown impedance  $Z$  and resonance reestablished. The new current  $I_2$  is

$$I_2 = \frac{E}{R + R'} \quad (2)$$

where  $R'$  is the resistive component of the unknown impedance  $Z$ .

Finally the unknown impedance is replaced by a known standard resistance  $R'$  and resonance is reestablished. The current  $I_3$  is

$$I_3 = \frac{E}{R + R'} \quad (3)$$

Combining Eqs. (1), (2) and (3) one obtains for the unknown resistance

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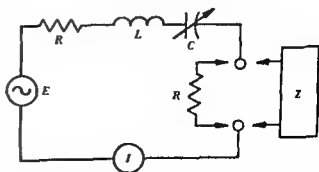


Fig. 1 Series resonance circuit for determination of unknown impedance

The unknown reactance is given by

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left( \frac{1}{C_2} - \frac{1}{C} \right) \quad (5)$$

here  $C$  and  $C_2$  are the settings of the variable capacitor for resonance with the short-circuiting link of the unknown impedance in circuit respectively at two different frequencies.

But capacitance method. This method differs from the reactance method only in the measurement of the unknown reactance component. The reactance is deduced from the capacitance change necessary to tune the circuit by a known amount.

The circuit is first tuned to resonance and the reactance of the circuit is detuned and the capacitance  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  for which the circuit becomes resonant are determined. At the setting of  $C_1$  the reactance of the circuit exactly equals the inductive reactance  $X_L$  and it can be shown that

$$R = \frac{1}{2\omega} \left( \frac{1}{C_2} - \frac{1}{C_1} \right) \quad (6)$$

A measurement with the short-circuiting link is possible in the case where the quality factor of the circuit is  $Q$ . A second measurement with the short-circuiting link replaced by the unknown impedance  $Z$  yields a reactance  $R$  which is equal to  $R + R$ . This is the same measurement as the

$$R = R_2 - R \quad (7)$$

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left( \frac{1}{C} - \frac{1}{C_2} \right) \quad (8)$$

**Parallel resonance methods.** The parallel resonance method is a class of the resonance method. The main advantages are that it is a definite term of maximum voltage and the circuit is measured by the peak value of the current  $I$  and the voltage  $V$  (Fig. 2).

And the circuit method. This method is the same as the reactance method. A measurement with the terminal open is made with the unknown impedance  $Y$  connected in the circuit. The unknown impedance is replaced by a known impedance  $Z$  and the

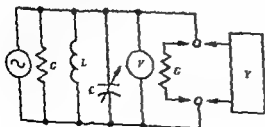


Fig. 2 Parallel resonance method for measurement of unknown impedance

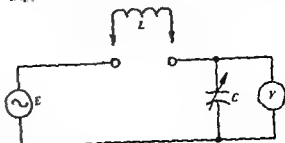


Fig. 3 Series resonance method for measurement of unknown impedance

$$C = C_2 \frac{f_1(f_1 - f_2)}{f_2(f_1 - f_2)} \quad (9)$$

$$B = \omega(C_1 - C_2) \quad (10)$$

where the subscripts refer to the three measurements respectively.

**Suspension method.** This method is the dual of the reactance-variation method. At the resonance setting  $C$  and  $C'$  for which the circuit's reactance equals the circuit inductance  $X_L$  the voltage becomes 0.707 and

$$C = \frac{\omega}{2} (C' - C) \quad (11)$$

The same principle of measurement as in the reactance-variation method then yields

$$C = C_2 - C_1 \quad (12)$$

$$B = \omega(C_1 - C) \quad (13)$$

The so-called method gives accurate results with fairly simple equipment but is not readily made direct reading and are therefore not used as the basis of commercial instruments.

**Resonance method.** A circuit that has been widely used commercially is the storage factor  $Q$  factor. It is shown in Fig. 3. Commercially the instrument is known as a  $Q$  meter (see  $Q$  meter). The resonant current  $I$  in this series circuit is a function of the

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

and the voltage  $V$  across the tuning capacitor  $C$  by

$$V = IX_C = IX_L \quad (14)$$

where  $R$  is the total circuit resistance and  $X_C$  and  $X_L$  are the reactances of the capacitor  $C$  and inductor  $L$  respectively. The voltage  $V$  is proportional to  $I/E$  so the

$$\frac{V}{E} = \frac{X_L}{R} \quad (15)$$

If the reactance  $X_L$  is small compared with the resistance  $R$  and the reactance of the capacitor  $X_C$  will be directly proportional to the frequency  $f$  and

$Q$  of the coil In the  $Q$  meter illustrated in Fig 4 the voltmeter scale is calibrated directly in  $Q$  and the value of the unknown inductance is determined from the calibrated capacitor setting by means of the relation

$$L = \frac{1}{\omega^2 C} \quad (16)$$

Knowing  $L$  the effective resistance of the inductance is given by

$$R_L = \frac{\omega L}{Q} \quad (17)$$

**$Q$  of a tuned circuit or cavity** Several methods of measuring  $Q$  are available

**Resonance curve method** If frequency is varied so that the current in a tuned circuit or cavity goes through resonance and the frequencies  $f$  and  $f_0$  for which the current is reduced to 0.707 of its maximum (half power points) are noted it can be shown that

$$Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0}{\omega - \omega} = \frac{f_0}{f - f} \quad (18)$$

where the subscript 0 refers to values at resonance. For high  $Q$  cavities at microwave frequencies this measurement is usually performed by coupling the generator and detector to the magnetic field with small pick up coils so oriented that direct pickup from one to the other is negligible. If the couplings are too strong the resonance curve will be broadened by losses coupled in from the generator and detector. As they are weakened however this broadening will disappear and the observed curve will be that of the cavity alone.

**Decrement method** The storage factor  $Q$  of a resonant device represents the ratio of the maximum energy stored in the electric or magnetic field during a cycle to the amount of energy dissipated in that cycle. It can also be measured therefore by observing the decay in oscillation amplitude when the exciting signal is cut off. The current in the tuned circuit then follows the law

$$I = I_0 e^{-(R/2L)t} = I_0 e^{-(\omega_0/Q_0)t} \quad (19)$$

where  $t$  is time,  $I_0$  the initial resonant current and the other symbols carry their previous connotation. The cavity  $Q_0$  is then related to the time interval  $\Delta t$  during which the current decays by a factor of  $e = 2.71828$  by

$$Q_0 = \frac{\omega_0 \Delta t}{2} \quad (20)$$

#### See TIME CONSTANT

This measurement is carried out with a pulsed modulated generator, a detector having a large bandwidth compared with that of the cavity to be measured and a cathode-ray oscilloscope. The detected signal which measures the cavity current is applied to the vertical plates of the oscilloscope and the horizontal deflection is synchronized with the modulating pulse to produce a stationary pattern. This pattern may be scaled directly off the screen for rough measurements or in a more complex set up the pattern may be compared with the discharge curve of an RC network excited by the modulating pulse.

**$R_0/Q_0$  of a resonant cavity** At microwave frequencies where a resonant cavity may be difficult to analyze as an equivalent LC resonant circuit it is often necessary to measure the quantity

$$\frac{R_0}{Q_0} = \sqrt{\frac{L}{C}} = \omega_0 L = \frac{1}{\omega_0 C} \quad (21)$$

to obtain in conjunction with a measurement of  $Q_0$  a value for  $R$  the effective hunt resistance of the cavity. This is most often done by the perturbation method.

If  $C$  can be varied in an LC circuit it can be shown that

$$\frac{R_0}{Q_0} = -\frac{1}{\omega_0^2} \frac{d\omega}{dC} \quad (22)$$

Analysis of the field in a microwave cavity when a perturbing object is introduced can by analogy be used to relate the resultant change in frequency to  $R_0/Q_0$ .

#### NULL METHODS

A phenomenon at least equal in importance to resonance is an indicator of precluded oscillation condition—balance. The precision with which the difference between two alternating voltage amplitudes reduced to zero can easily reach a few parts in a million. Null methods are almost universally used for the most precise measurements.

**Radio frequency bridges** At radio frequencies the problems arising from variable parameters make it desirable to use a constant parameter standard in substitution method. The ideal null device is a frequency invariant signal source that can participate with a target of the frequency to be determined. In the null method widely used commercial instrument for this

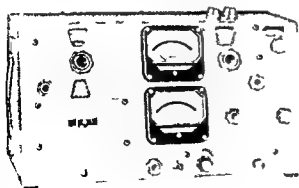


Fig 4. Boston  $Q$  meter used to measure  $d$  characteristic  $Q$  of the frequency generator from 50 kc to 50 Mc (Boston Radio Corp.)

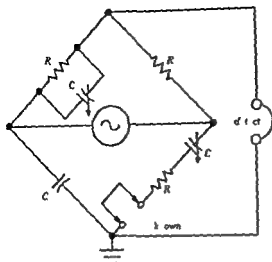


Fig 5 C i hem t f G I R d r d o f e q cy b dg

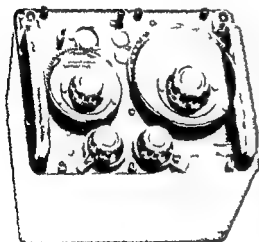


Fig 6 G I R d d o f e q cy b dg (G I R d C)

**General Radio rf bridge** The balance condition for this bridge is given in Fig 5 and 6. It is used to determine the reactive component  $R$  and the unknown reactive component  $X$  of impedance in terms of the known bridge components  $R_B$ ,  $C$ ,  $C_A$  and  $C_F$ .

$$R = \frac{R_B}{C_A} (C_{A2} - C_{A1}) \quad (23)$$

$$X = \frac{1}{\omega} \left( \frac{1}{C_{P2}} - \frac{1}{C_{P1}} \right) \quad (24)$$

As indicated both the resistive and reactive components are measured in terms of capacitance differences. The bridge is used to refer the reactance to a standard capacitor with the terminals first short-circuited and second connected to the unknown impedance. The dial of the capacitor  $C$  is calibrated in ohms independent of frequency and the dial of the capacitor  $C_F$  in ohms at a frequency of 1 Mc. At other frequencies the reading of the reactance dial must be divided by the frequency in megacycles. The instrument covers the frequency range from 400 kc to 60 Mc. The range extends to 50 kc and 120 Mc.

**Wayne Kerr rf bridge** This bridge uses a center-tapped transformer with a slight degree of coupling between windings to develop equal and opposite voltages in the standard and unknown arms (Fig 7). A mutual transformer with one winding reversed couples the output of the detector (shown in Fig 7) to a unit used to modify the effect of the capacitance and conductance standard  $C$  and  $G$  respectively. In terms of the number of turns  $n$  between the center tap and the unknown admittance  $(n_1)$  the conductance standard  $(n_2)$  and the capacitance standard  $(n)$  the balance conditions are

$$G = \frac{n_1}{n} G \quad (25)$$

$$B = \frac{1}{n} \omega C \quad (26)$$

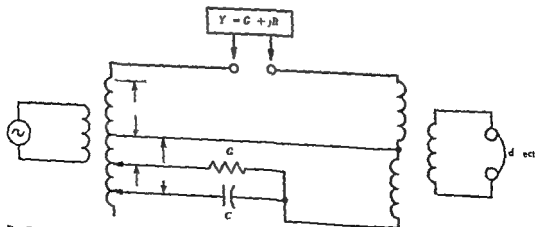


Fig 7 Simplified detector for two-arm bridge

Combinations of switched fixed value standards and continuously adjustable standards yield scales that are calibrated directly in conductance and capacitance independent of frequency. Similar taps on the unknown side of the center tap are used to switch admittance ranges. The instrument covers the frequency range from 15 kc to 5 Mc; other versions extend the range from 15 kc to 250 Mc.

Bridges of this kind are particularly well adapted to the measurement of the direct component of balanced and other three terminal admittances because the shunt components can be thrown across the low impedance transformer windings by grounding of the center tap and eliminated from the measurement. They can also be adapted to the measurement of the transfer impedance of four terminal devices.

**Boonton RX meter.** This bridge uses the same configuration of bridge arms as the General Radio bridge but measures the unknown as an admittance in the A arm rather than an impedance in the P arm. For this inversion the balance equations become

$$G = \frac{C_A}{R_B} \left( \frac{1}{C_{P2}} - \frac{1}{C_{P1}} \right) \quad (27)$$

$$B = \omega(C_{A1} - C_{A2}) \quad (28)$$

The RY meter differs from conventional bridges in that the bridge arms are excited by out of phase voltages from a transformer. At balance the junction point voltages are equal in magnitude but opposite in phase. The null voltage is therefore obtained between the center point of a capacitive voltage divider and ground as shown in Fig. 8.

**Microwave null devices.** At frequencies so high that the distributed nature of parameters must be

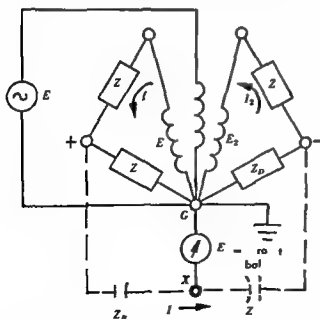


Fig. 8. Circuit match of Boonton RX meter. Special three-winding transformer couples out of phase voltages from the generator to the two halves of the bridge and the two capacitors  $Z_R$  and  $Z_P$  produce a center tap to feed the detector.

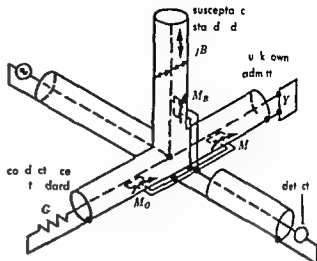


Fig. 9. Functional diagram of General Radio admittance meter. The three loops  $M_B$ ,  $M_A$ , and  $M$  sample the magnetic fields in the susceptance standard and unknown admittance arms respectively and combine the outputs in the detector arm.

taken into account the principle of null comparison can still be used to effect precise adjustment. There are three widely used commercial instruments for this frequency range.

**General Radio admittance meter.** This instrument shown in Figs. 9 and 10 samples the magnetic field arising from the current in each of three coaxial transmission lines through adjustable loops ( $M_B$ ,  $M_A$ , and  $M$ ) coupled to their center conductors at their junction point in the T configuration shown in the figure. All the lines are fed at this point from a common voltage and thus the currents bear the same relationship to each other as the respective admittances seen looking into each of the lines. One of the lines is terminated in its characteristic impedance  $Z_0$  to prevent a standard conductance  $G$  equal to  $1/Z_0$ ; one is terminated in an eighth wavelength transmission line to prevent a standard susceptance  $B$  equal to  $1/jZ_0$ ; and the third is terminated in the unknown admittance  $Y$  equal to  $G + jB$ . The coupling loop can be rotated by means of shaft-carrying dial, the first two being calibrated in conductance and susceptance respectively, and the third in admittance range. The loop that is couple to the unknown admittance range is adjustable over a 180° range to indicate either positive or negative susceptance. The eighth wavelength line is set to the proper length for the operating frequency so that the conductance and susceptance scale are direct reading in terms of frequency. If the unknown is connected to the instrument by a half-wave line the reading of the scale becomes directly proportional to impedance. The instrument is direct reading for the frequency range from 10 to 1000 Mc.

**Transfer function and admittance bridge.** A modification of the admittance meter is a major improvement. It is a four-terminal device with a limit impedance standard in a T configuration similar to the described above, thereby making possible the measurement of the transfer impedance of four-terminal devices.

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H ulett Pack d hf br dge In th i strumnt  
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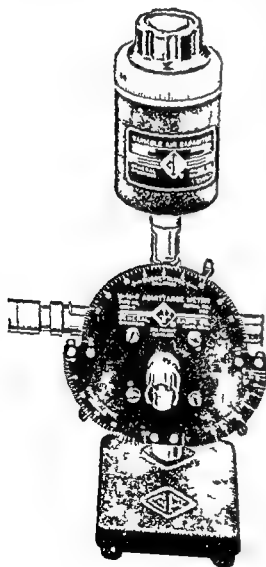


Fig 10 G  
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Standing wave detector Sta d ng w m d t ec  
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each th a d m a w the sum of th two m g l



tudes the minima conversely measure their difference. The ratio of maximum to minimum voltage is called the *voltage standing wave ratio* (VSWR).

The amount of reflection depends upon the relation between the impedance in which the line is terminated and the characteristic impedance of the line. If the impedance is resistive and equal to the characteristic impedance the current will flow into it just as it would into a further extension of the line itself and there is no reflection; if the transmission line is short-circuited the reflected voltage will be equal in magnitude but of reversed polarity to the incident wave because the net voltage must be zero at the termination; if the transmission line is open-circuited the reflected voltage will again be equal in magnitude but of like polarity to the incident wave so that the voltage doubles at the termination. When the terminating impedance equals the characteristic impedance the VSWR is unity and the line is said to be matched. When the line is short-circuited or open-circuited the VSWR would be infinite if the line were lossless. The distance from the termination to the first minimum is respectively zero and  $\frac{1}{4}$  wave length for the two terminations.

It can be shown that these two quantities, the VSWR and the distance to the first minimum, uniquely define the terminating impedance. They are easy to determine experimentally but the mathematical conversion to the conventional impedance components is somewhat involved. Graphical

methods of interpretation have therefore been developed and one known as the Smith chart is now used both for determining impedance from standing wave measurement and for analyzing the effects of finite lengths of connecting line.

**Slotted line.** A commercial slotted line for measuring impedance at the lower microwave frequencies is shown in Fig. 13. It comprises a cylindrical coaxial line having a slot in the outer conductor into which a small capacitive probe extends to sample the electric field. As the probe slides along the line its position can be measured to find the distance from the termination to the first voltage minimum and the maximum and minimum voltages determined to find the VSWR. This line is suitable for measurements from about 300 to 5000 Mc.

**Slotted section.** A commercial slotted section for measuring impedances at the higher microwave frequencies is shown in Fig. 14. Its function is similar to that of the coaxial slotted line but it differs in certain practical respects. Coaxial lines cover the frequency range from dc to the frequencies at which the higher order modes of propagation used in wave guides occur. Wave guides on the other hand are restricted to the relatively narrower frequency ranges over which a single selected dominant mode is useful. Replaceable slotted sections are therefore provided so that a wide frequency range can be covered with a single carriage mechanism. The various sections cover the frequency range from 2600 Mc to 40 000 Mc with two models of carriage.

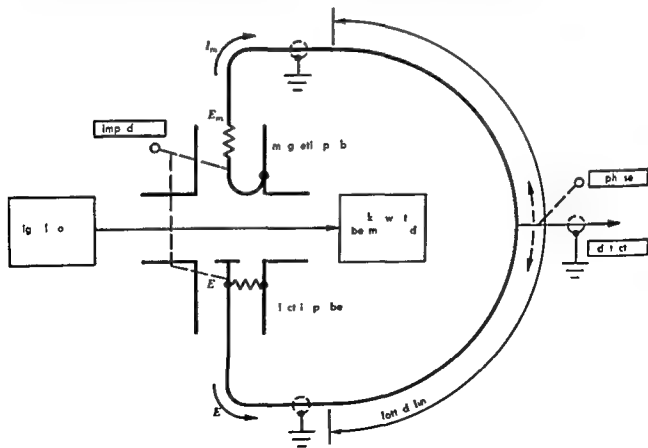


Fig. 14. Slotted section of Hewlett-Packard high frequency

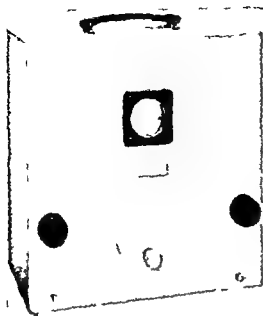


Fig 12 Microwave reflectometer (Hewlett-Packard Co.)

**Microwave reflectometer** A reflect meter separates the incident and reflected waves in a transmission line and measures their individual amplitudes. The ratio of the amplitudes is equal to the magnitude of the reflection coefficient  $|\Gamma|$  if the terminating impedance. The VSWR can be determined from

$$\text{VSWR} = \frac{1 + |\Gamma|}{1 - |\Gamma|} \quad (29)$$

To measure the terminating impedance itself an additional measurement of phase shift at the point of reflection is necessary. The reflection coefficient can then be represented as a vectorial quantity  $\Gamma/\theta$  related to the terminating impedance  $Z_L$  and the characteristic impedance  $Z_0$  of the transmission line by

$$\Gamma = \Gamma/\theta = \frac{Z_L - Z_0}{Z_L + Z_0} \quad (30)$$

$$\text{from which} \quad Z_L = \frac{\Gamma + 1}{\Gamma - 1} Z_0 \quad (31)$$

A basic component of the reflectometer is the directional coupler which permits the actual

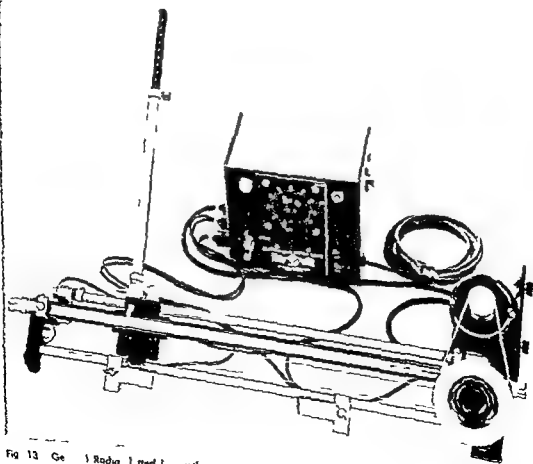


Fig 13 General Radio Model 1000 with motorized mechanical VSWR display (General Radio Co.)

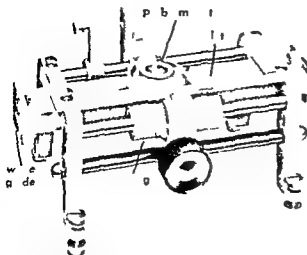


Fig 14 Hewlett Packard slotted section for microwave measurements. Different wave-guide elements can be inserted in the cavity for different frequency ranges between 3 950 and 18 000 Mc (Hewlett Packard Co)

separation of the two waves. Two of these coupled to the transmission line in opposite directions yield independent measurements of the two waves from which their amplitude ratio can be computed. A convenient arrangement uses a ratio meter to display the magnitude of reflection coefficient directly. The angle  $\theta$  of the reflection coefficient can be measured with an auxiliary slotted line to determine the distance from the termination to the first voltage minimum with an auxiliary capacitance probe to indicate the vector sum of the incident and reflected waves at a known point on the line or by comparing the phases of the outputs of the directional couplers themselves.

A commercial instrument that performs a function similar to the reflectometers is shown in Figs 15 and 16.

A rotating loop at a T junction couples to the magnetic fields of the three component arms which

are connected respectively to a susceptance and the unknown admittance  $Y$  and a source of rf power. As the loop is rotated the induced voltage varies between a value proportional to the sum of the currents in the standard and unknown arm  $I_B + I$  when it is aligned with the generator arm and a value proportional to the difference of the currents  $I_B - I$  when it is aligned with the other two arms. For a setting of the susceptance standard that makes the arm admittance equal to  $1/Z_0$ , the ratio of the minimum and maximum output which occur at settings spaced by  $90^\circ$  equals the VSWR. It can also be shown that the angle of the loop at which the minimum occurs when measured from a  $45^\circ$  position between the generator and unknown

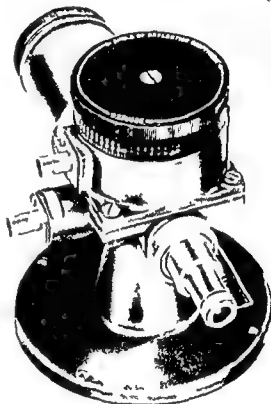


Fig 16 PRD standard wave indicator for impedance measurements from 30 to 1000 Mc (Polytechnic Research and Development Co Inc)

arm is equal to one half the angle of the reflection coefficient. [DBS]

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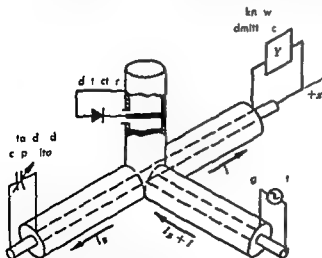


Fig 15 Schematic representation of PRD standard wave indicator. The detector loop shown can be at a distance from the junction with the magnetic fields generated by the currents in the T junction.

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1938 P H Smith T an mision li = calculator  
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## Impetigo

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Only r rly is th d a e e s s fa as mor  
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BIOTIC.

[E C ST]

## Impsonite

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0-8 r Imp ont i nsf bl a d s lubl m  
bo d lfd A ei fimp it 10 ft wid oe  
cu La Fl re County Oklahom and the ea  
the d po t n A k n Nevada M hg n  
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r n mp ite may be d ed from g ab mte by  
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h h t s f u d

Imp n tes e k wnt nia nu ually high  
# i ges f nd m S ALBERTITE ELATER  
ITE WIR ITE e l A H L A SPI L  
tit

[I A B]

## Impulse (mechanics)

Th t gr l of f n i r r l of time F r  
f F th mp l J r th nterv l f m t to  
r b w t

$$J = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} F dt$$

Th impul thu r p e nt th p d u t f the time  
r r l nd th a ag f a t ng d r ng the i  
t al impulse ect q tity with unit of  
m m i m

The m me tum mpul e relat n tate that if e  
change n momentum a er a g en time interval  
equals the impul e of if e resultant force acting d r  
ing that interval Th s relation can b pro ed i y  
i t grati n f Newt n s econd law ver the time  
interval fr m t o t Let P repres nt the m mentum  
at time t with P and P<sub>1</sub> being the alu f P at  
t mes t<sub>0</sub> and t respect ily Th n

$$J = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} F dt = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (dP/dt) dt \\ = \int_{P_0}^{P_1} dP = P_1 - P_0$$

If as s ordinar ly tru the ma m is c n t nt the  
m mentum change can be expre ed i terms of the  
velocitie v<sub>1</sub> a d v<sub>0</sub> at times t<sub>1</sub> and t<sub>0</sub> re pect ily  
g i ng

$$J = m(v_1 - v_0)$$

The co cept of mpul s s ordina ly m t u el l  
wh n the force are la ge but act only for a hort  
p rod I m t of the e ca es one needs i kn w  
nly th mom tum change w ch i det m ned by  
the impul e Th el is n b t we n moment m a d  
imp l e t i u has the ad ant of el m nating the  
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For es wh h occur dur ng c ll s are f th  
t p S e C LUSION

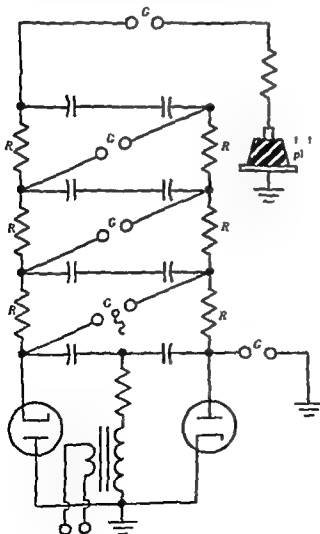
A furth r m pl f i c t i o of th s type of s y tem s  
obta ned if th time interv l s hort e ough for the  
s y tem to be c de ed e ent ally tat nary d r  
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m nt m ha ge oc ur almo t i ta ta eou ly Fx  
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ple had o c r ed The effect f th imp l m can  
th i be c n d r d t pr ide a t of insu l c n  
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r g nally at rest i g n n mp l e by the f e  
s oc at d with th c e s The nly eff ct of th  
ur e t n th l i r motio f the i l wh h can  
be o ide ed t o n ry d r ng the time th re s  
rent i t p o d e n a n t i e lo ity for the b-  
equent m t n S G L V A N M I E T E R I M P A C T (I M-  
PULSIVE FORCE) M O I E N T O  
B l o g phy J W Campbell A l i i d u c t i o  
t Mecha cs d 194

## Impulse generator

An i tr al pp ratus wh ch p d ce ery short  
r ges i high lt g r figh current pow r  
H gh imp l e vol s m  
of i lators a d of p w r equ pment ag st  
l gh n g a d w tch ng s rge High ur t im-  
pul a e prod u c d by th d sch rge of nden rs  
c e c t e d n p a l l ) S h e u r r n t u g may b  
sed to m gn t p rman nt magnets or to p o-  
d e the r s ag r agnet s f i d rcula p r t le  
c i r t s (se PARTICLE A CCELERATOR)

High voltage impulse generators commonly employ the principle originally suggested by E. Marx of charging condensers in parallel and discharging them in series. The figure shows a four stage Marx circuit in which the condensers  $C$  are first charged in parallel through charging resistors  $R$  then connected in series and discharged through the test piece by the simultaneous sparkover of park gaps  $G$ . The discharge is precipitated by placing a sufficient voltage on the middle electrode of the three electrode gap between the first and second condenser banks.

Although  $1-2 \times 10^6$  volts (peak) is most common over  $75 \times 10^6$  volts to ground have been obtained. The waveform shows a rapid rise followed by a less rapid decline to zero expressed by  $v \propto (e^{-mt} - e^{-nt})$  where  $v$  is the instantaneous voltage  $t$  seconds after onset of the discharge and  $m$  and  $n$  are the exponential decay constants of the circuit. Typical industrial laboratory waveforms are the 0.5-5 the 1-10 and the 15-40 in which the first number is the time in microseconds to the peak of the voltage wave and the second is the time to one half voltage on the tail of the wave. These discharges simulate the transient voltages induced in



Typical four-stage Marx impulse generator circuit

electrical conductors by natural lightning [Jett]

**Bibliography** T. E. Allibone and F. R. Perry, Standardization of impulse voltage testing, *J. Inst. Elec. Engrs. (London)*, 18, 257-284, 1936. J. D. Craggs and J. M. Meek, *High Voltage Laboratory Technique*, 1954. F. Marx, Investigation in the testing of insulators with impact voltage, *Elektrotech. Z.*, 45, 652, 1924.

## Impulse turbine

A prime mover in which fluid under pressure enters a nozzle where its pressure (potential energy) is converted to velocity (kinetic energy); the fluid then impinges on blades of a rotor imparting its energy to the blades to produce rotation (see TURBINE). The fluid may be water, steam or hot gas (see HYDRAULIC TURBINE, STEAM TURBINE, TURBINE PROPULSION). The action is continuous; thus a designation such as pressure would be more descriptive although impulse is established by long usage. See PELTON WHEEL, see also REACTION TURBINE. [F.H.R.]

## IMViC test

A mnemonic for a group of four cultural tests used to differentiate genera of bacteria within the family Enterobacteriaceae. The tests are described in the following paragraphs.

**Indole** This is a putrefactive compound produced by some bacteria from tryptophan. The bacteria are inoculated into a broth made with an enzymatic digest of casein (see CASIN). After a 2-hour incubation at 37°C a solution composed of para-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde, amyl alcohol and hydrochloric acid is added. A positive reaction is the appearance of a red color in the alcohol layer indicating the presence of indole.

**Methyl red** This is a test for the ability of certain bacteria to ferment carbohydrate and form acid. The pH of a culture containing 0.5% glucose is determined after 4 days at 37°C. If the pH is below 4.5 (if the pH at which the indicator methyl red turns red) the microorganism is termed methyl red positive.

**Voges-Proskauer** This is a qualitative test for the formation of acetyl methyl aryl in from glucose. A large inoculum of the organism under study is made into a tube of glucose broth incubated for 6 hours at 30°C. Solution of a naphthol potassium hypochloride and creatine are added to the culture. A positive reaction is indicated by a pink to red color.

**Citrate** This is a test for the ability of an organism to utilize sodium citrate as a sole source of carbon. A medium prepared with 1% sodium dihydrogen phosphate ( $\text{KH}_2\text{PO}_4$ ), magnesium sulfate ( $\text{MgSO}_4$ ), sodium ammonium phosphate ( $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4$ ) and sodium citrate ( $\text{Na}_3\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}_7$ ) in distilled water. A small inoculum of the organism is used in the medium. After incubation growth of the organism indicates citrate utilization.

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b te aca

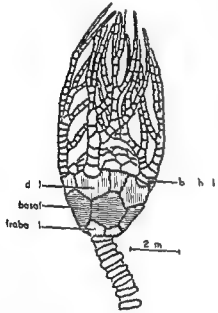
#	I d l	M thyl ed	Y ges- Prosk	C trate
E h ichia	±	+	-	-
A robate	±	-	+	+
Pro l as	±	+	-	+
Salmo ll	-	+	-	+
Shig l		+	-	-

± d t ti th be post gat  
Th a e h w e m n y m e c p t i o n f o m  
t a n d d h i h e e c l y e t c t t h e t o o m  
a d d i g t c l e o f t h i t f t e s t S e B a c  
T E R O G Y M E D I C A L C U L T U R E T E C H N I Q U E

[A J W]  
B b l m p h y S o t y f A m e a B t r l o  
g s t M n l f M b l g n l M t h d s 1957

Inadunata

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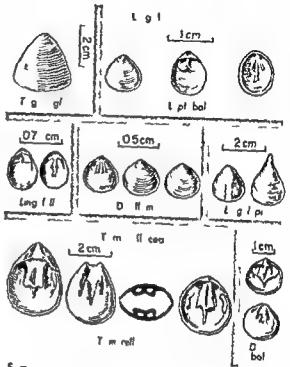
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the an s lav at the upper end of a l n g p l a t e d  
p h n r s n g f o m t h e t e g m e n T h e g r u p c o n t a i n s  
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t h e T r m a d o c a n o f W a l e S e e C r i O I D E A

[J I R F]

Inarticulata

A c l a s o f t h e p h y l u m B r a c h i p o d a c h a r a c t e r i z e d  
b y h a n g n a r t i c u l a t i g p r o c e m u h a t e e t h  
a n d s o c k t s a l n g t h e c r d i n a l m a g n o r h i n g e

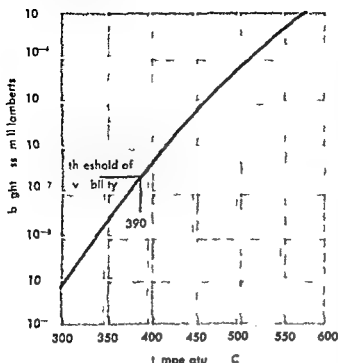


S m p i t i f a n c l a t B h p o d  
(F m R C M C G L l k d A G F c h  
l r t b f f l M G w H l l 1952)

I o r i f p r t h y r e r d i m e n t r y T h t w  
l a e o p n d a n d l o d b y m u s c l e c t n l y  
T w d e s a r e c o g e d t h e A t r e m a t a a n d N e o  
t e m a t a A a r t i u l a t i n a l y f u c t a l  
S p d y l b l u s a n d T m f l a b o t h m b e s o f t h  
i n r t u l a t a n d b a d l y f n t n l n A t g n a  
n d S h i z o p h a l i s w h c h a e A t c l i t a c o m m n  
r g f o r b o t h g r u p s s u g g e t e d T h e I n a r t i c  
l a t a a g f o n t h e C a m b m t o R e c e n t [K H]

Incandescence

T h e e m s o n o f i b l e s d t o h y a i t b o d y l  
t h e t u c t u a l l y p e r f e c t a d t i l d a b l k l d y  
w i l l m t d a t e n e g r r d n g t P l n c k  
r a d i a t i o n l w t a y t e m p e r t e P d i t o f i t  
s u l b g h t n s q e s a d d i t i o n a l c o n s i d e r t o  
f t h e t i v i t y o f t h y e a n d t h e r a d t n w l l  
b e i b l l y f t m p a t u o f t h b l a k b d y  
w h h a b o v m e m n m m T h e c l a n l y  
t w e b g t n e s a d t m p r t u e s p l t t e d i t h  
f i g e A h w n t h m m m t m p a r r f o r  
i d e n c f t h e d r k a d j t e d e y e b o t



Relation between brightness of a black body and temperature

Approximate color temperatures of common light sources

Source	Color temperature (°K)
Candle	19
Incandescent lamp	2800
Conventional incandescent lamp	2800
Fluorescent lamp	4000
Mercury vapor lamp	4000
Sodium lamp	2000

390 °C Under the ideal observing condition the incandescence appears as a colorless glow. The dull red light commonly associated with incandescence of object in a lighted room requires a temperature of about 500 °C. See BLACK BODY HEAT RADIATION VISION.

Not all source of light are incandescent. A cold gas under electrical excitation may emit light as in the so-called neon tube or the low pressure mercury vapor lamp. Ultraviolet light from mercury vapor may excite visible light from a cold solid as in the fluorescent lamp. Luminescence is the term used to refer to the emission of light due to cause other than high temperature and include thermoluminescence in which emission of previously trapped energy occurs on moderate heating. See THERMOLUMINESCENCE. See also FLUORESCENT LAMP; MERCURY VAPOR LAMP.

Flame are made luminous by incandescent particles of carbon (a flame can be made to produce intense light by the use of a gas mantle of thorium containing a small amount of ceria). The mantle is a good emitter of visible light but a poor emitter of infrared radiation. A less heat resistant in the long wave the mantle operates at a high temperature than a black body would and hence produces more intense visible light.

A useful criterion of an incandescent source is the color temperature, the temperature at which a

black body has the same color although not necessarily the same brightness. The color temperature of common light sources depend upon operating condition. Approximate values are given in the accompanying table. See COLOR TEMPERATURE. INCANDESCENT LAMP. [H.W.R.]

Bibliography: M. M. Benarie, Optical pyrometry below red heat, *J. Opt. Soc. Am.* 47:1005-1009, 1957.

## Incandescent lamp

An electric lamp that produces light by heating a metallic filament to intense heat by passing an electric current through it. It is designed to produce light in the visible portion (at wavelengths of 390-760 millimicron) of the electromagnetic spectrum. The filament is prepared of special materials and is enclosed in either an evacuated envelope or one filled with an inert gas. In addition to radiation in the visible spectrum, infrared and ultraviolet energy are emitted, thus lowering the luminous efficiency of the lamp. When either of the radiation is accentuated however the lamp may be used as a source of that radiant energy. The light source efficacy, formerly called light source efficiency, is expressed in lumens per watt. Luminous efficiency is the ratio of the luminous flux to the radiant flux.

**Lamp construction.** The important part of an incandescent lamp are the lamp envelope or bulb, the filament, and the base. The envelope and the auxiliary parts of a typical incandescent lamp are shown in Fig. 1.

Standard lamps have various bulb shapes, base and filament construction. The bulb may be clear, colored in side frosted, or coated with diffusing or reflecting material. Most lamps have soft glass bulb, hard glass used when the lamp will be subjected to sudden and severe temperature change. In addition lamps are available with a variety of bulb shape, base type and filament structure as shown in Fig. 2. The variety according to the type of service planned, the need for

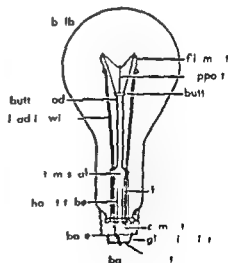
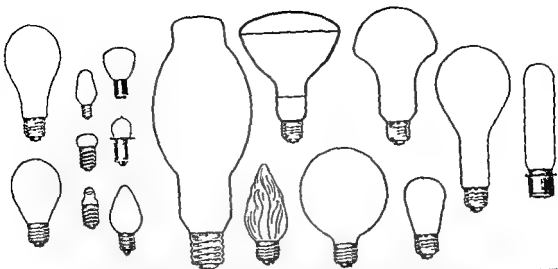
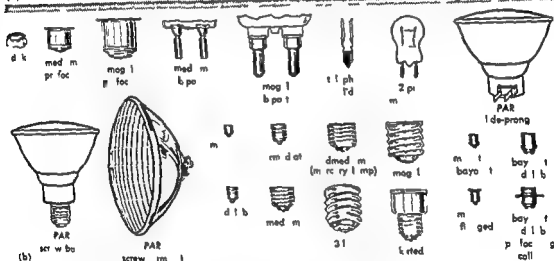


Fig. 1. Port of the incandescent lamp (G. E. Co.)



(1)



(b)

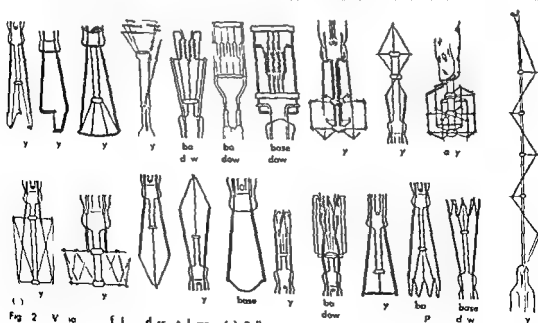


Fig 2 V io f l d sc t l mp (1) B lb  
sh pe (b) l mp base (1) F l m t tr t  
give b m g po io (1) G l E l d C )



easy replacement and other environmental and service condition

The efficient design of an incandescent lamp centers about obtaining a high temperature at the filament without the loss of heat or disintegration of the filament. The early selection of carbon which has the highest melting point of any element (6510 F) was a natural one. Carbon evaporates from its solid phase (sublimate) below this temperature however and it must be operated at relatively low temperatures to obtain reasonable life. Two other elements, niobium (melting point 4890 F) and tantalum (melting point 5250 F) claimed attention because they could be operated at a high temperature with a longer life and less evaporation. With the advent of ductile tungsten, a nearly perfect filament material was discovered. Ductile tungsten has a tensile strength four times that of steel its melting point is high (6120 F) and it has relatively low evaporation. Hot tungsten is an efficient light radiator. It has a continuous spectrum closely following that of a black body radiator with a relatively high portion of the radiation in the visible spectrum. Because of its strength, ductility and workability it may be formed into coil, the coils again recoiled (for coil coil filaments) and the coils again recoiled for cathodes in fluorescent lamp. If tungsten could be held at its melting point 52 lumen/watt would be radiated. Because of physical limitations however 22 lumen/watt is the highest practical radiation for general service lamps. Some special lamps reach 35.8 lumen/watt. The higher the lumen per watt the higher the filament temperature and the color temperature and the whiter the light.

Because the temperature of the filament controls the life of the lamp and its efficiency it also controls the economic of lighting. For an economical installation the factors affecting lamp life are weighed against the cost of the lamp and its installation and the cost of operation. This type of economic study however is rarely made of a lighting installation. The usual practice is to select a desired lamp size from the stock of the supplier for the accepted regional voltage.

Vaporization of the filament is reduced as much as possible. A small amount remains however and causes blackening of the bulb. The evaporated tungsten particles are carried to the upper part of the bulb by convection current. With the lamp in a base-up position the blackening is confined to the socket area and the light output is only slightly affected. In a base-down position the blackening reduces the output a few per cent. To reduce blackening the inner atmosphere of the lamp is kept as clean as possible by use of a getter which combines chemically with the tungsten particles. In lamps in which a getter is not adequate tungsten powder is enclosed in the bulb and used to scour the surface by baking. In metal lamp a grid is placed to attract and hold the evaporated tungsten particles.

When cement failures are likely because of the heat mechanical fastening is used to hold the lamp

to the glass. When large electric currents are present either mechanical fastening or bipolar construction is used. Bipolar and prefocused base allow accurate placement of the filament with respect to the equipment for which it is designed. There are two common failures of the lamp bulb: (1) in projectors when the filament image is focused upon the glass and the bulb blisters and (2) when the hot bulb comes in contact with some low temperature medium and thermal cracks develop. To protect the electric circuit from some lamp failure a fuse may be placed in the lead in wire.

**Lamp ratings** Lamps are built for various voltage conditions the most common being 115, 120 and 125 volts. High voltage lamps are designed for ratings from 220 to 260 volts and low voltage lamps from 6 to 64 volts. Lamps for use in 525 to 625

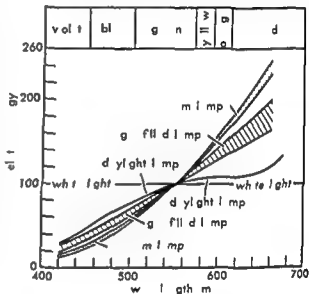


Fig 3 Spectral energy distribution for important types of incandescent lamp

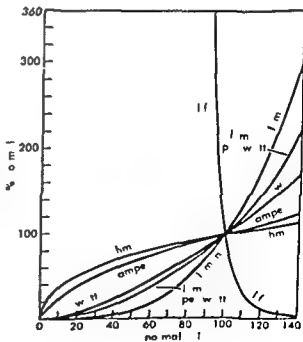


Fig 4 Characteristic curves for incandescent lamp

It is designed to operate in groups of  
four in series across the line Christmas lights  
are designed to operate in parallel strings  
with eight lamps placed across the line. Set  
lamps are the same type per string 66 amp  
per string. The systems where individual lamp  
transformers are used with lamp current of 15-20  
amp. In series lighting system the nu-  
merosity of the electrical system is maintained by a  
device that shunts the current to the lamp with the fila-  
ment.

Lamp characteristics. Two characteristics of the cadent lamp (particular interest) are the following: First, the light is very bright and clear for the major type of candle lamp. Figure 4 shows the light characteristics of the lamp.

th cha ge of lla ge  
At time it ce a y to d t mne l mp cha  
a t r i c u d e th r than r m l co d th  
f llowing f i e t s r q u o t e w i t h x p o n m t  
g n Tabl l p e m t s l u t o n f r a c t u a l s e r v i c e  
d t m p a e d t n r m a l o f r a t

$$\frac{\text{lfe}}{\text{life}} = \left( \frac{\text{lumens}}{\text{lum}} \right) = \left( \frac{\text{lumens/watt}}{\text{l m /watt}} \right)^s$$

$$= \left( \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{lt a}} \right) = \left( \frac{\text{amperes}}{\text{moe e}} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1 \text{ m}}{\text{LUMENS}} &= \left( \frac{\text{v t t}}{\text{WATTS}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left( \frac{1 \text{ m m} / \text{w t t}}{\text{LUMENS} / \text{WATT}} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{\text{t t}}{\text{WATTS}} \right) = \left( \frac{\text{m p e s}}{\text{AMPERES}} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{\text{h m}}{\text{OHMS}} \right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\text{LUMENS}}{\text{lm}} \frac{\text{WATT}}{\text{W}} = \left( \frac{\text{LUMENS}}{\text{lm}} \right)^{\dagger} = \left( \frac{\text{VOLTS}}{\text{V}} \right)^{\dagger}$$

$$= \left( \frac{\text{AMPERES}}{\text{amp}} \right)^{\dagger}$$

$$\frac{\text{ampere}}{\text{AMPERES}} = \left( \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{VOLTS}} \right) \quad \text{watts} = \left( \frac{\text{fts}}{\text{VOLTS}} \right)$$

T th q t n ry fi t t k w  
th m l har t t f the l mp u h l fe  
lume f m n p watt lt mp re watt l  
hm f ll th h t t to b tud ed  
d b m l tt n S b t t g to th  
t t th pe fi m l h te t (up  
pe e l tt ) a d th pe l dn s (l w  
l tt ) w th the p p ponent f om Table  
l d k w ch t t m y be det m ed  
Th pe t T bl e l d at t m  
b t f p t l pu p e d f r orm l lag  
a g th g ll off

ng th ee e  
f gh m t  
l w i b  
lt ge f l  
d oe c g  
t ad t  
u h

Applications and special types in and t  
l m; l l d l; d f m y rce M l  
on m th ed t g l m a d th

### Y b 1 Exponents

tbl 1 Exponents		
	G	filled
	386	38
b	1	70
d	131	13
	11	33
k	338	31
k	181	18
	19	
y	6	60
	736	836
f	0544	050
g	181	193
j	340	333
j	0541	0580
l	154	158

Table 2 Type 1 perform on file and c t  
lamp b ed below r ted it g

Percentage of milk fat			
Weight	Light type	Weight	Fat
1000	1000	1000	1000
99	973	988	98
983	914	94	959
97	918	961	94
967	89	90	938
98	864	936	93
90	810	94	908
91	813	91	891
933	80	808	87
95	766	887	86
917	41	875	818
900	695	80	817
833	60	85	794
86	608	803	8
80	566	779	728
833	5	3	697

m i t t e l m p S p e c i a l t y p e l a b e n d e l p e d  
f u g h r v e p p l c a t n b k e o e n u s s  
v r e b r t p p l c t i o h w a e l a m p m l t  
p l e i g h t ( t h e w y l a m p ) g n l a m p s p o i l g h t  
f i d l i g h t s a n d i e c t n t r l a m p s

Se e e e light e lamps are de ign d w th  
hea y fil m nt Th e it p nt s at a nst nt  
ur ent a d the oltag on the r uit s adju ted  
t th n m b r f b rn g lamp s t ke p th  
u e t t t

fl e c t r i c i t y l a m p h a t h l i g h t e l e c t r i c i t y  
 t h e d e s i g n o f t h e l a m p T h i s d o e s b y o u t  
 d e s i g n w i t h t h e l e r n i n g p l a c e i n a n y  
 d e s i g n i n g t h e l a m p f a c t o r s T h e r e f o r e  
 f a c t o r s p r o t e c t d a d e f f e c t i v e f o r t h e l i f e  
 o f t h e l a m p

Proj t typ l mp h ve m ld d gla fle  
t il e ed i d the l n p ty w th n r a  
l a gl s co m ld d trol le ver  
The res t a d th o e a sealed t g th r  
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e f h rd gl s d th lamps may b d f r  
tdon r i n f lo d l g t a d p t l g t i tall  
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led be m h d l g h t f a tom b l j mo-

ea y replacement and other environmental and service conditions

The efficient design of an incandescent lamp centers about obtaining a high temperature at the filament without the loss of heat or disintegration of the filament. The early election of carbon which has the highest melting point of any element (6510 F) was a natural one. Carbon evaporates from its solid phase (sublimate) below this temperature; however, and it must be operated at relatively low temperatures to obtain reasonable life. Two other elements, osmium (melting point 4890 F) and tantalum (melting point 5950 F) claimed attention because they could be operated at a high temperature with a longer life and less evaporation. With the advent of ductile tungsten, a nearly perfect filament material was discovered. Ductile tungsten has a tensile strength for time that of steel at melting point is high (6120 F) and it has a relatively low evaporation. Hot tungsten is an efficient light radiator; it has a continuous spectrum closely following that of a black body radiator with a relatively high portion of the radiation in the visible spectrum. Because of its strength, ductility, and workability, it may be formed into coil, the coils again recoiled (for coil-coil filaments), and the coils again recoiled for cathode in fluorescent lamp. If tungsten could be held at its melting point, 52 lumen/watt would be radiated. Because of physical limitations, however, 22 lumen/watt is the highest practical radiation for general service lamps. Some special lamps reach 35.8 lumen/watt. The higher the lumen per watt, the higher the filament temperature and the color temperature and the whiter the light.

Because the temperature of the filament controls the life of the lamp and its efficiency, it also controls the economics of lighting. For an economical installation, the factor affecting lamp life are weighed again; the cost of the lamp and its installation and the cost of operation. This type of economic study, however, is rarely made of a lighting installation. The usual practice is to select a desired lamp size from the stock of the supplier for the accepted regional voltage.

Vaporization of the filament is reduced a much as possible. A small amount remains, however, and causes blackening of the bulb. The evaporated tungsten particles are carried to the upper part of the bulb by convection current. With the lamp in a horizontal position, the blackening is confined to the socket area and the light output is only slightly affected. In a vertical position, the blackening reduces the output a few per cent. To reduce blackening, the inner atmosphere of the lamp is kept as clean as possible by use of a getter which combines chemically with the tungsten particles. In a lamp in which a getter is not adequate, tungsten powder is enclosed in the bulb and used to cover the surface by baking. In some lamps, a grid is placed to attract and hold the evaporated tungsten particles.

When cement filaments are likely because of the high filament life and good to hold the base

to the glass. When large electric currents are present, either mechanical fastening or type of construction is used. Bipoint and prefocus are all accurate placement of the filament with respect to the equipment for which it is designed. There are two common failures of the lamp bulb: (1) in projectors when the filament image is focused upon the glass and the bulb filters and (2) when the hot bulb comes in contact with some low temperature medium and thermal crack develops. To protect the electric circuit from some lamp failure, a fuse may be placed in the lead-in wire.

**Lamp ratings** Lamps are built for various voltage conditions, the most common being 115, 120, and 125 volts. High voltage lamps are designed for ratings from 220 to 260 volts and low voltage lamps from 6 to 64 volts. Lamps for use in 575 to 625

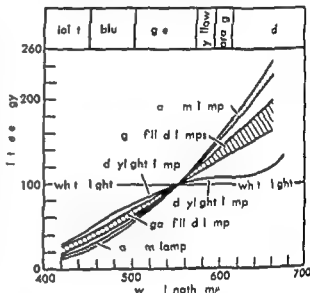


Fig 3 Spectral energy distribution for important types of incandescent lamp

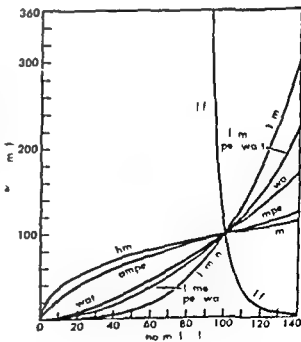


Fig 4 Characteristic curves for incandescent lamp

It is often desired to operate in group of five or more cross the line. Christmas lights are designed to operate in parallel strings with glow lamps placed across the line. Street lamp arrays of the e.e.s. type operating on 66 amp except in a system where individual lamp is a form is used with lamp current of 15-20 amp. In a street lighting system the t.n.v.f. electric system is maintained by a device that will cut out the lamp when the filament burns out.

**Lamp characteristics** Two characteristics of the lamp are the lamp of parallel resistance and the ratio of the lamp to the voltage. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3.

At the time the lamp is first started the lamp current is under the normal value. The following table of equation with the components of the lamp is shown in Figure 3. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3.

$$\frac{\text{Life}}{\text{LIFE}} = \left( \frac{\text{LUMENS}}{\text{lm s}} \right) = \left( \frac{\text{LUMENS/WATT}}{\text{lm ns/watt}} \right)^2$$

$$= \left( \frac{\text{VOLTS}}{\text{olts}} \right) = \left( \frac{\text{AMPERES}}{\text{mperes}} \right)$$

$$\frac{\text{lum}}{\text{LUMENS}} = \left( \frac{\text{lt}}{\text{VOLTS}} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{\text{lne / watt}}{\text{LUMENS/WATT}} \right)^2$$

$$= \left( \frac{\text{lt}}{\text{WATTS}} \right) = \left( \frac{\text{ampe s}}{\text{AMPERES}} \right)$$

$$= \left( \frac{\text{hms}}{\text{OHMS}} \right)$$

$$\frac{\text{LUMENS WATT}}{\text{lm n att}} = \left( \frac{\text{LUMENS}}{\text{lm ns}} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{\text{VOLTS}}{\text{olts}} \right)$$

$$= \left( \frac{\text{AMPERES}}{\text{amper}} \right)$$

$$\frac{\text{mper s}}{\text{AMPERES}} = \left( \frac{\text{lt}}{\text{VOLTS}} \right) \quad \frac{\text{watts}}{\text{WATTS}} = \left( \frac{\text{volt}}{\text{VOLTS}} \right)$$

The following table shows the characteristics of the lamp. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3.

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Applications and special types of a des nt lamp has been developed for many years. The following table shows the characteristics of the lamp. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3.

Table 1 Exponent

	C s-filled	V m
b	386	38
d	71	70
d	131	135
k	11	13
k	338	351
h	181	18
y	19	60
f	736	836
f	0 44	0 50
p	181	193
j	310	333
i	0 12	0 580
	151	158

Table 2 Typical performance of a lamp at sea level

P	tax	rm l pe t	
V lt z	Light tp t	W tt	Eff y
100 0	100 0	100 0	100 0
99	97 3	98 8	98
98 3	91 4	9 4	96 9
9 5	91 8	96 1	9 4
96 7	89	9 0	93 8
95 8	86 4	93 6	9 3
9 0	81 0	9 4	90 8
88	81 5	91	89 4
93 3	80	89 8	8
9 5	66	88 7	86
91	74 1	87 5	81 8
90 0	69 5	8 0	81 7
88 3	6 0	8 5	9 4
88	60 8	80 3	8
8 0	56 6	77 9	8
83 3	5 0	7 5	69

The following table shows the characteristics of the lamp. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3. The ratio of the lamp to the voltage of the lamp is shown in Figure 3.

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tives and airplanes. A high degree of accuracy—just short of optical accuracy—is achieved by molding the contours of the reflector thereby obtaining accurate beam control. With this sturdy structure the filament can be positioned for the best use of the lens and the lamp has little depreciation during its life. Being constructed of hard glass it lends itself to high wattage use.

Miniature incandescent lamps are used in many fields and in many pieces of equipment from the ordinary flashlight to the grain of wheat lamps used in surgical and dental instruments. The lamps are designed to give the highest efficiency consistent with the nature of the power source employed.

Special picture projection lamps are designed for accurate filament location in the focal plane of the optical system with the filament concentrated as much as possible in a single plane and in a small area. The precision lamps use a prefocus base for accurate positioning of the filament with respect to the base. Projector lamps run at high temperatures and forced ventilation is frequently required.

A special class of lamp is designed for the photographic field where the chief requirement is actinic quality. Frequently the most important rating is the color temperature with little regard for economic efficiency or life. Flood lamps give high illumination for a short life obtaining twice the lumens from high filament temperature and high color temperature with three times the photographic effectiveness. The daylight blue flood lamp gives a very white light at 4800 K color temperature at 35.8 lumen/watt.

For other types of incandescent lamps see **ARC LAMP**, **INFRARED LAMP**. [J.O.R.]

**Bibliography** Illuminating Engineering Society *IES Lighting Handbook* 3d ed. 1959.

## Incendiary

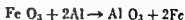
One of a number of flammable materials and device that are used to set fire to tactical and strategic target such as buildings, industrial installation and fuel and ammunition dumps. Flame warfare extends also to anti-personnel use in the case of flame thrower and fire bomb.

Modern incendiaries can be classified either those which owe their effect to a self-supporting chemical reaction or those which depend on atmospheric oxygen to support combustion.



Modified flame thrower

**Metallic incendiaries** Thermite is a mixture of powdered iron oxide  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  and powdered or granular aluminum. When heated the following reaction occurs:



This produces a temperature of about 2700°C and melts the iron formed which in turn easily ignites any combustible material with which it is in contact. The reaction is self-sustaining.

Metallic magnesium igniting at about 600°C, requires oxygen to support combustion. Once started the fire is extremely difficult to put out. Water is decomposed by burning magnesium and adds hydrogen to the combustion. Burning is stopped only by excluding oxygen or by cooling the metal below its ignition temperature. Incendiary bomb casing of magnesium are usually ignited by a thermite core.

**Petroleum incendiaries** These are based on gasoline as a fuel. The gasoline may be either straight or mixed with other petroleum fuels. It must however be thickened to be an effective incendiary. This thickening is necessary to confine the burning material to the target and when used in flame throwers to increase the range of the ejected rod of fuel and to prevent its being consumed before reaching the target. Thickened fuel is sometimes called jellied gasoline.

One of the first practical fuel thickeners was Napalm, a mixed aluminum soap in which the organic acids are derived from coconut oil (50%), naphthenic acid (25%) and oleic acid (25%). It may be used in quantities ranging from 1 to 12% depending on the thickness desired. Gasoline thickened with Napalm becomes a firm jelly when undisturbed but in motion such as when forced through a flame thrower nozzle it acts as a viscous liquid. This thixotropy is characteristic of all thickened fuels.

Flame throwers are devices which force petroleum fuels through nozzles igniting them as they emerge. The driving force is usually compressed air carried in a small tank which is an integral part of the device. Portable flame throwers carried by soldiers have a range of over 50 yards under ideal conditions. Mounted flame throwers mounted on military vehicles can throw fuel over 150 yards. Flame throwers are primarily anti-personnel weapons.

**Other incendiaries** White phosphorus which ignites spontaneously in the presence of atmospheric oxygen to produce a loud splashing sound and a thick, white smoke. It is used in incendiary bombs, although its principal use is as a smoke producer. Burning in the air produces thick white smoke and a bright white flame. It is used in incendiary bombs and in flame throwers. **CHEMICAL WARFARE: FIRE EXTINGUISHING SCREENING MOIST**. [S.D.]

**Bibliography** *Corps of Engineers Manual* 1944. *U.S. Department of the Army, Military Chemistry and Chemical Warfare*. Technical Manual TM 3-15 Aug. 1954.



pre sibly to occupy any clo ed pace to which it is confined regardle s of the initial volume of gas and pace This property distinguishes a gas As with liquid low flow of a gas is clo ely approximated by a uming it to be incompressible For example at airplane speeds below about 200 mph the flow of air about a body can be analyzed as incompressible Usually the dividing line is taken as a Mach number of approximately 0.3 Below this velocity flow is considered incompressible In this region the Reynolds number provides a measure of flow characteristic The approximation brings several implications Density and temperature are assumed to be constant during incompressible flow Like frictionless mechanical motion incompressible flow is a useful engineering concept but not an accurate description of reality See AERODYNAMIC FORCE COMPRESSIBLE FLOW FLUID FLOW PROPERTIES MACH NUMBER REYNOLDS NUMBER

[J F MA]

## Indene

A colorless liquid hydrocarbon (also called indenyl cyclopentadiene) which boils at 181°C and freezes at -2°C It is usually obtained from the light oil fraction (boiling point 178-182°C) produced in the carbonization of coal but it is also obtained by the pyrolysis of certain petroleum fractions



Indene C<sub>10</sub>H<sub>8</sub>

duced in the carbonization of coal but it is also obtained by the pyrolysis of certain petroleum fractions

Indene resembles cyclopentadiene in that one hydrogen of the methylene (CH<sub>2</sub>) group may be replaced by a drum Indene may be oxidized to phthalic acid or reduced to indan (C<sub>11</sub>H<sub>8</sub>) In the presence of acid indene polymerizes Copolymers with acrylonitrile have been manufactured as a small scale for use in coating and floor covering See POLYMERIZATION HYDROCARBONS

[C A B]

## Index fossil

Any fossil which identifies and dates the rock strata in which it is found The name of the index fossil is used to designate the strata (zone) containing it such as the Cambrian trilobite zones and Ordovician graptolite zone The term guide fossil is applied to any fossil that is useful for purposes of identification or correlation The usefulness of both guide and index fossils depends upon their restricted vertical (stratigraphic) range while graptolites are graptolite fossils and distinctive characters See FOSSILS AND STRATIGRAPHIC NOMENCLATURE

[C A B]

## Indian Ocean

The boundaries of the Indian Ocean are defined by the Indian Ocean Sea (19°N-30°S), the Red Sea (at a 138,000 km<sup>2</sup>) Persian Gulf (239,000 km<sup>2</sup>) Arabian Sea (90,550 km<sup>2</sup>) Aral Sea

Sea (1,391,000 km<sup>2</sup>) and the Strait of Hormuz (1,000 km<sup>2</sup>) and that part of the Southern Ocean between 40°S and the Antarctic Circle and extending from 20°E in the west to a line in the east along the Balleny-Macquarie-Mill Ridge to South Cape in Tasmania (23,301,000 km<sup>2</sup>) The total area is 77,918,000 km<sup>2</sup> (1 km = 0.3861 mi) The ocean sector north of latitude 50°S is divided below See ANTARCTIC OCEAN

**Ocean floor** The floor of the Indian Ocean is divided longitudinally by the Carlberg Mid-Indian Kerguelen line of ridge (Fig. 1) North of the island of Rodriguez (20°S) the general depth of the ridge system is 2300-2700 m with a least depth of 836 m southward it rises to the island of New Amsterdam St. Paul Kerguelen and Heard West of this line the marine sediments are chiefly glauconitic coarse grained chiefly fine red clay terrigenous origin with volcanic deposits present in the Indonesian arc The deepest basins and trenches occur east of this line of ridge and include the Wharton Deep 6460 m and the Sunda (Java) Trench 7415 m Little is known of the deep circulation in the basin of the Indian Ocean

**Temperature and salinity** In the oceanic area of the Indian Ocean data are sufficient to show general seasonal differences in the distribution of surface temperatures and salinity but not as detailed a picture of annual variation In contrast to the amount of detailed information is much greater but often is not sufficient to show the distribution of temperature and salinity because of the greater variations which occur there

**Surface temperatures** The mean surface temperature in February (Fig. 2) shows the influence of the southern limit of the thermal equator of August (Fig. 2) shows the northward shift The isotherms run generally from west to east and are not greatly diverted by the equatorial current In the other ocean the temperature of the deep water decreases from 3°C at about 2000 m to 1°C at the bottom

**Surface salinity** The Arabian and Red Sea are areas of high surface salinity Arabian Sea surface water extends southward toward Madagascar (Fig. 3) In the southern belt high salinity water extends from South Africa toward the west Australian reaching salinity values higher than 35 parts per thousand and (60) near Australia Owing to the rain off and high rainfall salinity is less than 35 parts per thousand in the Bay of Bengal and the west Indian Ocean The permanent extension of the area of low salinity is west of Java in Fig. 3 is typical

**Surface currents** South of latitude 10°S the surface current is the South Equatorial Current which continues through the Seychelles to the latitude of 10°S in the west wind system in the eastern equatorial drift of the east water part of the drift continues toward the Atlantic with the monsoon current in the east of the monsoon part of the South Equatorial Current which returns toward the African Coast The current becomes the Agulhas current which flows southward between





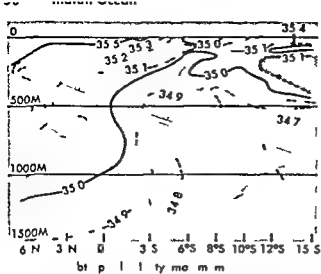


Fig 4 Relations of water masses in the upper 1500 m of the Indian Ocean from 6°N to 15°S along 50°E based on records of salinity obtained in 1935 by the French vessel *Naosel* (After Tchernia, Lacombe and Gubert 1958)

Madagascar and Africa. In the southern winter the South Equatorial Current also contains water entering north of Australia from the Pacific Ocean. In the southern summer this contribution ceases. See SOUTH-EAST ASIAN WATERS.

North of latitude 10°S the circulation is determined seasonally by the prevailing winds. In February

and March when the northwest monsoon prevails the North Equatorial Current (east to west) is well developed and an Equatorial Counter Current (west to east) is present between 5°S and 10°S between the Gulf of Aden and 5°S. A current flows to the south. In August and September under the influence of the southeast monsoon the North Equatorial Current disappears and is replaced by the Monsoon Current (west to east). The Equatorial Counter Current forms part of the general eastward surface flow in the northern Indian Ocean during this season and a stream (the Somali Current) runs northward along the African Coast from 10°S to 10°N.

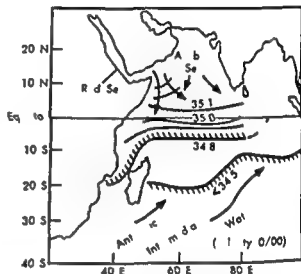


Fig 6 Southern limit of Red Sea and Arabian Sea water and northern limit of Antarctic Intermediate Water at 1000 m (Adapted from J. LeFloch 1951)

**Subsurface circulation.** Little is known about the subsurface circulation north of 50°S. Oceanographic data for depths greater than 1000 m are sparse. From the available data, however, and from data obtained in the upper layer, it is possible to show the interactions of the more important water masses, namely that originating in the Red Sea, Arabian Sea area, and that originating as Antarctic Intermediate Water (Fig 1).

A high rate of evaporation in the Red Sea (length 1000 mi, width 150 mi, maximum depth 2800 m) leads to the formation of relatively dense salt water and intermediate water (temp < 20°C, salinity > 37‰, density > 70). This water flows into the Indian Ocean over the sill at the entrance of the Red Sea (Fig 5). The flow is regular and greater in the northern winter than in the summer. This water, along with that formed in the Arabian Sea, spreads easterly toward longitude 80°E and southerly toward latitude 10°S at intermediate depths (1000-3000 m) mixing with warmer Indian Ocean water in the process (Fig 1).

Antarctic Intermediate Water (density 33.8‰, temp < 2°C) forms at the Antarctic Peninsula and flows northward in the Indian Ocean. In the winter area it meets the Red Sea water at 1000 m, 10°S to 300 m at 8°S, in the vicinity of the two

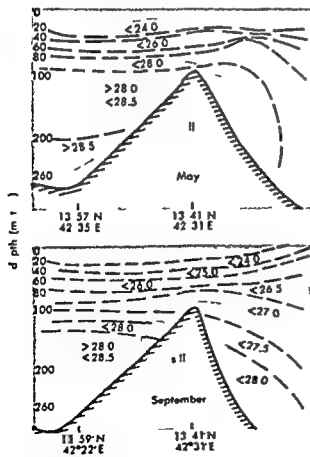
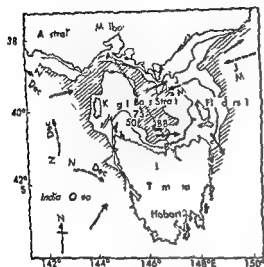


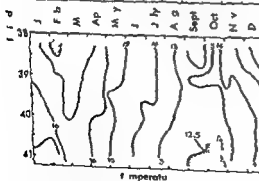
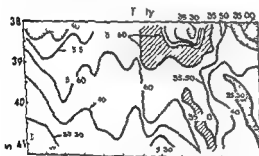
Fig 5 Distribution of density ( $\sigma_t$ ) and depth of celerity ( $\sigma_t$ ) of Red Sea sill in May and September (After Thompson 1939)

80 F and 100 E t c n t n u e s at about 1000 m t  
12 S d then r i e s s h a r p l y t w a r d t h e s u r f a c e  
(F g 6)

Bass Strait Th Ba s S t r a i t l i s b e t w e e n t h e  
A u t r a l i a n m a i n l a n d a d t h e i s l a d f T a m a n a l t  
i m p r t a t w a y e n n c i n e s t e r n a n d w e s t  
e r A t a l n p o r t a n d t h e c e n t e r f t h p i n c  
p l b r r a c d a n d s h o o l s h a r k f i s h e r e o f A u t r a  
l l r b a n p p o x i m a t e a r e 145 000 q m t, w i t h



F g 7 C h r i s t i a n S t r i t h w g p l g t d  
d i d m t h f t o r y s e t s. D i f f m a t  
l P l i d d f i b t i l e l (C.S.I.R.O D F h  
O e o g C l l A s t l)



$$K_A = \frac{[H^+][In^-]}{[InH]}$$

In a manner similar to the pH designation of acidity that is  $pH = -\log [H^+]$  the  $K_A$  is converted to  $pK_A$  with the following result

$$pK_A = pH - \log \frac{[In^-]}{[InH]}$$

It is seen that the  $pK_A$  of an indicator has a numerical value approximately equal to that of a specific pH level

**Use of indicators** Acid base indicators are commonly employed to mark the end point of an acid base titration or to measure the existing pH of a solution. For titration the indicator must be chosen that its  $pK_A$  is approximately equal to the pH of the system at its equivalence point. For pH measurement the indicator is added to the so-

lution and also to several buffers. The pH of the solution is equal to the pH of that buffer which gives a color match. Care must be used to compare colors only within the indicator range. A color comparator may also be used employing standard color filters instead of buffer solution.

**Indicator range** This is the pH interval of color change of the indicator. In this range there is competition between indicator and added base for the available protons, and the color change (for example yellow to red) is gradual rather than instantaneous. Observers may therefore differ in selecting the precise point of change. If one assumes arbitrarily that the indicator is in one color form when at least 90% of it is in that form, there will be a certain color in the range of 90% to 10%  $InH$  (that is 10% to 90%  $In^-$ ). Upon substituting these arbitrary limits into the  $pK_A$  equation it is seen that the interval between definite color is from

#### Common indicators

Common name	pH range	Color change (acid to base)	$pK_A$	Chemical name	Structure (acid or base)	Solubility
Methyl violet	0 - 5.6	Yellow to blue violet		Pentamethylbenzylpararosaniline hydrochloride	B <sub>1</sub>	0.1% in water
Metacresol purple	1 - 8 7.3 - 9.0	Red to yellow to purple	15	m-Cresolsulfonphthalein	Acid	0.3% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Thymol blue	1 - 7.8 8.0 - 9.6	Red to yellow to blue	1	Thymolsulfonphthalein	Acid	0.93% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Tropeoline OO (Orange IV)	1 - 3.0	Red to yellow		Sodium p-dimethylaminoazobenzene-sulfonate	B <sub>1</sub>	0.1% in water
Bromphenol blue	3.0 - 4.6	Yellow to blue	4.1	Tetramethyl- <i>o</i> -cresolsulfonphthalein	Acid	1.39% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Methyl orange	2.8 - 4.0	Orange to yellow	3.4	Sodium p-dimethylaminoazobenzene-sulfonate	Base	0.1% in water
Bromcresol green	3.8 - 5.4	Yellow to blue	4.9	Tetramethyl- <i>o</i> -m-cresolsulfonphthalein	Acid	0.1% in 0.05% NaOH
Methyl red	4 - 6.3	Red to yellow	5.0	Dimethylaminoazobenzene-carboxylic acid	Base	0.5% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Chlorophenol red	5.0 - 6.8	Yellow to red	6.2	Dichlorophenylsulfonphthalein	Acid	0.8% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Bromocresol purple	5.6 - 6.8	Yellow to purple	6.1	Dimethyl- <i>o</i> -cresolsulfonphthalein	Acid	1.08% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Bromthymol blue	6.0 - 6.8	Yellow to blue	7.3	Dimethylthymolsulfonphthalein	Acid	1.1% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Phenol red	6.8 - 8.4	Yellow to red	8.0	Phenolsulfonphthalein	Acid	0.71% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Cresol red	7.0 - 8.0 7.8 - 8.8	Orange to amber to red	8.3	<i>o</i> -Cresolsulfonphthalein	Acid	0.1% in 0.1N NaOH dilute to 0.01%
Orthocresolsulfonphthalein	8.2 - 9.8	Colorless to red			Acid	0.01% in water
Phenolphthalein	8.2 - 10.0	Colorless to pink	9		Acid	1% in 0.1% NaOH
Thymolphthalein	10.0 - 11.0	Colorless to red	9.9		Acid	0.1% in water
Alizarin yellow	10.0 - 11.0	Yellow to blue		4,4'-bis(p-sulfobenzene)azobenzene	Acid	0.1% in water
Methyl green	11.5 - 13.0	Green to colorless		p,p'-Bis(4-sulfophenyl)azobenzene	Base	0.1% in water



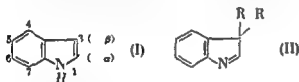
both melt at 235 °C. The compounds are diamagnetic and thus may be  $\text{In}^{\text{III}}$  ( $\text{In}^{\text{III}}\text{X}_3$ ) compounds. Reduction of the trichloride and bromide with indium metal results in products of composition  $\text{InX}$ . When added to water the reduced state compounds disproportionate to the metal and the oxidation state III.

Indium forms organometallic compounds mainly of the  $\text{R}_3\text{In}$  class where R is either alkyl or aryl. The reaction of indium metal with mercury alkyls (aryls) give the desired products. Indium organometallic compounds tend to be associated in solution and are easily oxidized in the air.

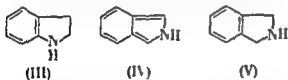
Indium may be determined quantitatively with 8-hydroxyquinoline by precipitation of the compound  $\text{In}(\text{C}_8\text{H}_6\text{ON})_3$  at 70–80 °C from an indium acetate-acetic acid buffer followed by drying at 120 °C and direct weighing of the precipitate. An alternate to the direct weighing is the bromometric titration procedure after solution of the compound in warm 10–15% hydrochloric acid or the colorimetric determination at 400 m $\mu$  of a chloroform solution of the 8-hydroxyquinolate. See GALLIUM, THALLIUM [F.M.L.]

## Indole

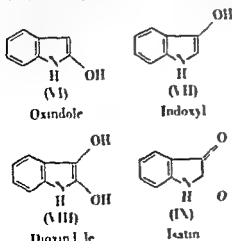
One of a group of organic heterocyclic compounds in which a benzene ring is fused to a pyrrole ring. Indole (I) is a typical member of the group (see



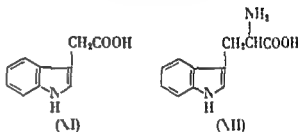
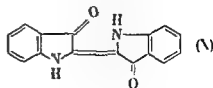
**HETEROCYCLIC COMPOUNDS. PYRROLE.** Indolenines refer to isomeric systems which are of interest generally only when two groups are present at the 3 position as in (II). 2,3-Dihydroindole is called indoline (III). The dihydroindole system (V)



has received much study. The indole system (IV) much less. Indole substituted with oxygen at position 2 or 3 have special names (VI–IX).



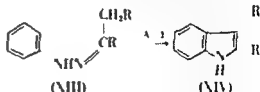
The indole skeleton occurs in many natural products. Examples might include the blue dye indigo (X), the plant growth hormone heteroauxin (XI), the amino acid tryptophan (XII) and the indole alkaloid, for example, tryptamine (XIII).



tryptamine (XIII) is one of the essential amino acids for man but also is the biochemical precursor of the indole plant alkaloid. It is also very likely the progenitor of indole and 3-methylindole (skatole) which are produced by pyrolysis of putrefaction of protein material.

**Properties and preparation.** Indole (I) is a steam-volatile, colorless solid, mp 52.5 °C, bp 253 °C. It is found in small amounts in coal tar in feces and in flower oil. Indole is not ordinarily classified as acidic or basic although it is an active hydrogen compound in which hydrogen at the 1 position is replaceable by metal. In the absence of oxygen indole is stable to heat and to alkali. Indole is an active reagent and to oxidation proceeds slowly even the more highly substituted indoles are in general more stable. Indole can be regarded as a relatively reactive aromatic compound. Electrophilic substitution favors the 3 position and to a lesser extent the 2 position. The experimental resonance energy for indole is 54 kcal/mole.

Indole synthesis is primarily by a five-membered heterocycle on a benzene compound. Of the many known synthetic methods the Fischer and Leuckart methods are the most versatile. By the Fischer method a phenylhydrazine (XIV) of an aldehyde or ketone on treatment with a dilute acid yields an indole.

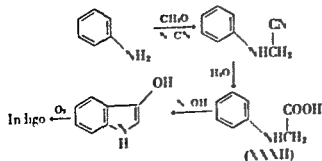
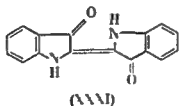
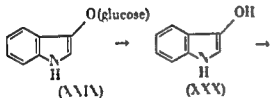
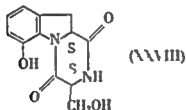
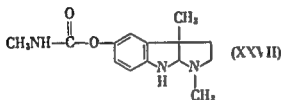
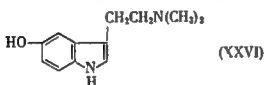
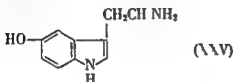


(XIV) For example, with the starting material is the phenylhydrazine of acetaldehyde, the product is 2-methylindole. The R group at position 1, 2, and 3 may be varied widely. Substitution at position 4 is formed when the phenylhydrazine (XIV) is substituted with a benzene ring. An alternative method of synthesis is the Leuckart method (XV) in which a substituted benzene derivative (XVI) is treated with a dilute acid to form an indole.



which phenylglycine (XXXII) is an intermediate. Substituted indigos are prepared from indigo or by total synthesis. The bromo and chloro derivatives are valuable dyes. Tyrian purple or 6,6-dibromoindigo, a dye of antiquity obtained from a Mediterranean snail.

3-Hydroxyindole or indoxyl is a yellow compound with an unpleasant odor. It is easily oxidized with air or with ferric chloride to indigo. Reduction with sodium amalgam or with hot zinc dust affords indole. The reactive 2-position of indoxyl combines readily with aldehydes to give col-

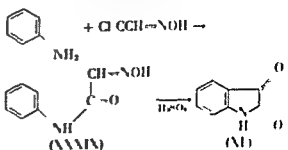
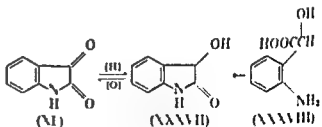
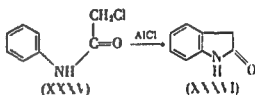
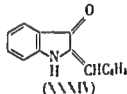
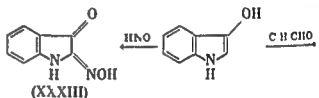


ored indogenide (such as XXXIV) and with nitrous acid to give isatin α-monooxime (XXXIII).

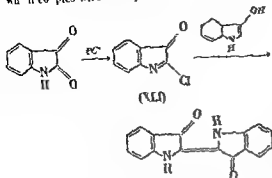
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D b l o g a p h y R C. Elderfield (ed) H t c y  
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## Inductance

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$$L = - \frac{e}{di/dt}$$

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$$LI = \Phi$$

and d i f f e r e n t i a t e w i t h r s p e t t o t

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or

$$L = - \frac{d\Phi}{dI/dt}$$

H e n c t h e c n d d e f i n i t i o n e q u a l e n t t t h  
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 m f L d i / d t o

$$E = R + L \frac{di}{dt}$$

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 S e p a r a t i n g t h e i n t e g r a l a n d i n t e g r a t i n g

$$\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{R}{L} dt$$

T h e s o l u t i o n of t h i s i s a t o n

$$i = \frac{E}{R} (1 - e^{-(R/L)t})$$

T h e c u r r e n t r e s e p o n t a l l y i s f i n a l t e d y  
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 l e s a d l e s p d a t h u r r e n t a p p r o c h e s t h e  
 f i n a l a l e

T h e p o w e r a p p l i e d t o t h e c i r c u i t a t v e y i n  
 t a t d u r i n g t h e f c u r r e n t i s g i e n b y

$$P = iE = i^2 R + L d i / d t$$

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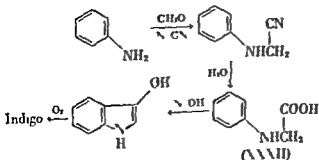
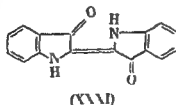
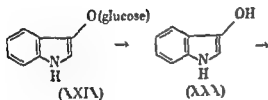
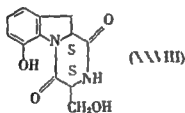
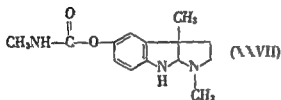
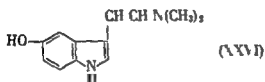
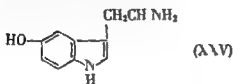
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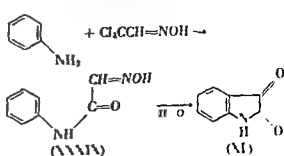
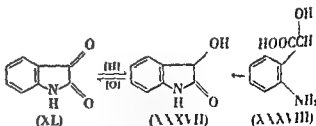
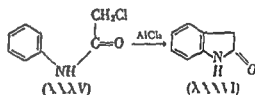
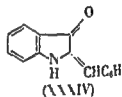
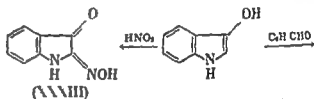


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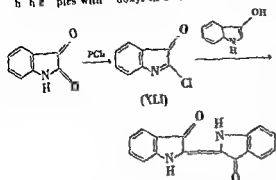
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## Inductance

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r

$$I = - \frac{e}{di/dt}$$

H e n e t h e e d d f i n t n i e q u a l e n t t t h e f i t

S e l f d c n t a n c e d o e n o t a f f e t a c r i t i n w h c h t h e u r r e t i n h n g b u t i t i o f g r e a t i m p o r t n e w h e n t h e e i a c h a n g i n g c u r r e n t s n e i f e r e i s a n n d e d e m f d r n g t h t i m e t h a t t h e c h a n g e t k e s p l c e F r e x a m p l e i n a n a l t e r n a t i g c i r c u i t c r c i t t h e u r r e n t i c o n s t a n t l y h a n g n g a n d t h e i d u c t n i s a n i m p o r t n t f c t o A l n t r a n s e t p h e n m n a t t h e b e g i n n i n g e n d f a s a d y u d e r u o n a l c u r r e n t t h e l f n d u t a n e p l y a p a r t S e T R A N S I E R E L E C T R I C

C o s i d e r a c o l o f e i a c e R a n d i n d u c t a n c e L o u n c i e l i n s e r i e s t o a c o n s t o u c e o f p o t e n t i a l d i f f e r e n c e f T h e c r e n t i n t h e c r c u i t i s n t e c h a f i n a l t e a d y a l u e i t a n t l y b u t r i e s t o a r d t h e f i l a l u e f i = i / R i a m a n n e t h a t d e p e d s u p o n R a d L A t r y i n t a t a f t e t h e s w i t c h i s c l e d t h a p p l e d p o t i a l d i f f e r e n c e i s t h u m f t h e i R d r o p i n p o t e t l a n d t h e b a c k e m f L d i / d t o r

$$i = R + L \frac{d}{dt}$$

w h r e i s t h e s t a n t a e c u a l u e o f t h e c u r r e n t S e p a r t i g t h e v i a b l e t a n d t o n e o b t a i n s

$$\frac{d}{dt} = \frac{R}{L} \frac{d}{dt}$$

T h o f t i n o f t h i s q u a t i o n

$$i = \frac{I}{R} (1 - e^{-(R/L)t})$$

T h e r e n t r e s e x p e n t i a l l y t a f i n l t e a d y a l u e I / R T h e r a t e f g w i t h a s p i d a t f r i t h e n l e a n d l s p d t h e r r e n t a p p r o h e t h e f i n l l e

T h e p o w e r u p p l d t o t h e m c t a t e v y n t a n d u i g t h r e l e c r e t g e n b y

$$p = i^2 = R + I d / dt$$

T h e f i r s t t e r m " R i s t h e p o w e r t h a t g t f e a t t h e c i r c u i t T h e s e c o n d t e r m L d / d t i s t h p o w e r t h a t g s t o b i l d g u p t h e m g n e t c f i l d i n t h e i n d u c t o T h t o t a l n e r g y t h a t i s u e d i b i l d i n g p a t h m a g n e t i c f i e l d

$$W = \int_0^I p dt = \int_0^I L i \frac{d}{dt} dt = \int_0^I L i d i = \frac{1}{2} L I^2$$

T h i s n e g y t h a b e r n u o d i b i l d n g p t h e m g n e t c f i l d r m a s a e n e g y o f t h e m g n e t c f i l d W h n t h e s w t c h o p d t h e m g e t c f i e l d c o l l a p s e s t h n e r g y o f t h e f i l d i s r e t n e d t o t h e c u r r e n t h n g n a n i n d u e d e m f T h e s

that is often seen when a switch is opened is a result of this emf and the energy to maintain the arc is supplied by the decreasing magnetic field

**Mutual inductance** The mutual inductance  $M$  of two neighboring circuits  $A$  and  $B$  is defined as the ratio of the emf induced in one circuit to the rate of change of current in the other circuit

$$M = -\frac{\mathcal{E}_B}{(dI/dt)_A}$$

The mks unit of mutual inductance is the henry the same as the unit of self inductance. The same value is obtained for a pair of coils regardless of which coil is taken as the starting point

The mutual inductance of two circuits may also be expressed as the ratio of the flux linkages produced in circuit  $B$  by the current in circuit  $A$  to the current in circuit  $A$ . If  $\Phi_B$  is the flux thread in  $B$  as a result of the current in circuit  $A$

$$\mathcal{E}_B = -N_B \frac{d\Phi_{BA}}{dt} = -M \frac{dI_A}{dt}$$

or  $N_B d\Phi_{BA} = M dI_A$

Integration leads to the result

$$M = \frac{N_B \Phi_{BA}}{I_A}$$

See **INDUCTANCE MEASUREMENT** [K & M]

**Bibliography** See **INDUCTION ELECTROMAGNETIC**

## Inductance bridge

A device that compares inductances. The inductance bridge is a special case of an impedance bridge. Just as the Wheatstone bridge is used to compare resistance, the impedance bridge is used

to compare impedances which may contain inductive capacitance and resistance

**General impedance bridge** A general impedance bridge is shown in Fig 1. Four impedances  $Z_1$ ,  $Z_2$ ,  $Z_3$ , and  $Z_4$  are connected into a square array. A source of voltage  $v$  is applied across one diagonal of the square and a detector or galvanometer  $G$  is connected across the other diagonal. The bridge is balanced when the current through the galvanometer and hence the voltage across it are equal to zero.

If the voltage across  $G$  is equal to zero, the instantaneous voltage drop across  $Z_2$  must equal that across  $Z_1$ . If the instantaneous in-phase voltages are equal, they are equal in magnitude and are in phase with one another. Equating the magnitudes  $Z_2 I = Z_1 I$  and following the same reasoning  $Z_3 I = Z_4 I$ . The current in  $Z_2$  is equal to the current in  $Z_1$  because the current in  $G$  is equal to zero. Similarly, the current in  $Z_3$  is equal to the current in  $Z_4$ . Eliminating  $I$  and  $I$  from the equations, an equation of balance is obtained

$$Z_2 Z_4 = Z_1 Z_3$$

The voltage across  $Z_2$  leads  $I$  by the power factor angle  $\phi$ , and the voltage across  $Z_1$  leads  $I$  by the power factor angle  $\phi$ . If  $I$  leads  $I$  by the angle  $\phi$ , then  $\phi + \phi$  must equal  $\phi$  if the two voltage drops are to be in phase. Similarly,  $\phi + \phi = \phi$ . Eliminating  $\phi$  from these two equations, the second equation of balance for the impedance bridge is obtained

$$\phi + \phi_4 = \phi_2 + \phi$$

Several important properties can be recognized by considering the second equation of balance. If  $Z_2$  and  $Z_3$  are resistors with  $\phi$  and  $\phi_3$  both equal to zero, then for balance  $\phi_1 = \phi$ . This means that  $Z_1$  and  $Z_4$  must both be inductive or both capacitive for balance. If  $\phi$  and  $\phi_4$  are both equal to zero, the second equation for balance becomes  $\phi_2 + \phi = 0$ . This means that  $Z_2$  is inductive and  $Z_3$  is capacitive or vice versa.

**General inductance bridge** The inductance bridge of Fig 2 has resistors  $R$  and  $R_2$  as ratio arms and compares an unknown  $Z$  in a standard consisting of  $R_4$  and  $L_4$ . If the standard  $L_4$  is variable, it and  $R_4$  are varied to reduce the detector voltage to zero. This balances the bridge and the equations of balance become

$$I/L_4 = R/R_1 = R/R_2$$

Sometimes a substitution method is preferred. In this case the balance is obtained as above with any good quality inductance for  $L_4$ . The unknown  $Z$  is then replaced by a standard  $L$  in series with  $R$ . The bridge is balanced a second time by varying  $L$  and  $R$ . When balance is obtained,  $I$  equals  $I$  and  $R$  equals  $R_4$ . For inductance standard, see **INDUCTOMETER**.

If the standard is not adjustable, it becomes necessary to vary one of the ratio arms  $R$  or  $R_2$  or both as well as  $R_4$  in order to obtain balance.

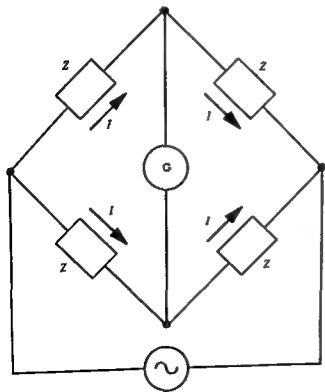


Fig 1 General impedance bridge

Ob i u ly the b i t u t i method ann t be p  
p l e d w h e r n l y f i x e d t a n d r d s a r v a l l i e

Theoret ally the d i t i n f o r i l a n c e i s i n d e p e n d e n t o f f e q u e n c y I n p a c t e t h e c a p a c i t a n c e b e t w e e n t r a n d b i t e e n l a y e r o f w a r i n t h e t w o c i l w i l l b e d i f f e r e n t d i t h i g h f e q u e n c e t h e b r i d g e c a n b e b a l a n c e d a t n o n e f r e q u e n c y a t a t i m U n d e r c h o n d i t u h a r m o n i c n o t h e u p p l y r i t g e w i l l m k e a b s o l u t e b a l a n c e i m p o s s i b l e

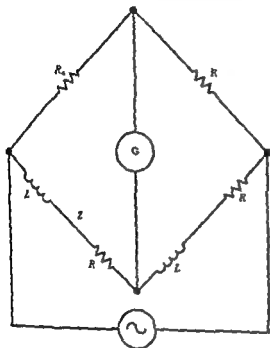


Fig 2 G i d e t e b d g

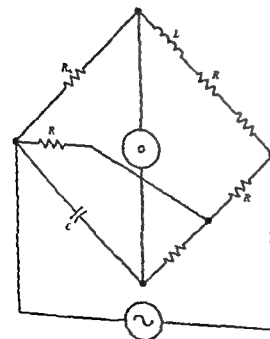


Fig 3 A n d e r s o n b r i d g

When h a r m o n i c s a r e p r e s e n t t h e b r i d g e c a n n o t b e b a l a n c e d b y r e d u c i n g t h e f u n d a m e n t a l m o d e i n t h e d e t e c t o r o u t l a g t o z e r o T h e c o n d i t i o n d o e s n o t n e c e s s a r i l y c o r r e s p o n d t o m i n i m u m d e t e c t i o n A t e h n i c i a n c a n s m t i m e s a c h i e v e a f a l s e b y e a r a t a u d i o f r e q u e n c y A n o s c i l l o c o p e p r o d u c e s a b e t t e r m e a n f i e e d g w h e n t h e f u n d a m e n t a l h a s b e e n r e d u c e d t o z e r o

**Anderson bridge** T h i s b r i d g e s h o w n i n F i g 3 c a n b e u s e d t o m e a s u r e t h e i n d u c t a n c e L i n t e r m o f a s t a n d a r d c a p a c i t a n c e C M o t l a b o r a t o r i e h a v e s t o c k m e r c a s i b l e c a p a c i t o r s t h a n i n d u c t o m e t e r s A m e a s u r e m e n t d e p e n d i n g u p o n i n d u c t i v e m e t e r s m o r e l i k e l y t o b e d e l a y e d t h a n a m e a s u r e m e n t d e p e n d i n g u p o n a p a c i t a n c e b e c a u s e t h e a p p r o p r i a t e i n d u c t o m e t e r i s n o t a v a i l a b l e T h e e q u a t i o n s o f b a l a n c e o f t h i s b r i d g e a r e

$$L_0 = \left( R_1 + \frac{R_4}{R_2} \right) R_3 C$$

$$R_1 + R_2 = \frac{R_3 R_4}{R_2}$$

T h e b r i d g e i s u s u a l l y b a l a n c e d b y v a r y i n g  $R_1$  a n d  $C$  T h e e c o n d e q u a t i o n i n d i c a t e s t h a t f o r s o m e c h o i c e o f  $R_1$  a n d  $R_2$  n o g a t e r m i g h t b e r e q u i r e d C o n s e q u e n t l y i f a b a l a n c e d o e s n o t e m p h a n c e b y v a r y i n g  $C$  a n d  $R_1$  o r  $R_2$  s h o u l d b e i n c r e a s e d o r  $R_2$  s h o u l d b e d e c r e a s e d T h i s w i l l i n c r e a s e  $R_1 R_4 / R_2$  w h e n  $R_1$  n e e d d b e a u t o b a l a n c e a n n o t b e b t a i n e d u n l e s s t h i s q u a n t i t y i s a t l a s t a s g e s  $R$

**Carey Foster bridge** T h i s e f u l k r i d f i r d e t e r m i n g m t l i n d u c t a n c e i s s h o w n i n F i g 4 T h e b r i d g e i s t h e o r e t i c a l l y i n d e p e n d e n t o f f r e q u e n c y W h e n t h e b r i d g e i s b a l a n c e d

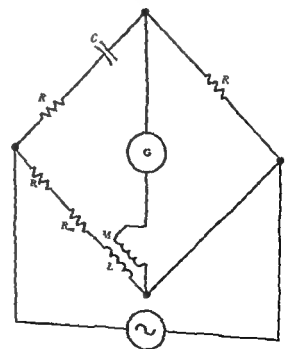


Fig 4 C a r e y F o s t e r b r i d g

$$M = R (R_M + R) C$$

$$L = (R + R_M) (R_M + R) C$$

If these equations are to be used directly the resistance  $R_M$  of the coil must be measured by some other circuit arrangement. If a known large resistance  $R$  is connected in series with the coil it may be possible to neglect  $R_M$  in comparison with  $R$  and the equations become

$$M = R RC$$

$$L = (R + R_M) RC$$

Resistances  $R$  and  $R_M$  are varied to obtain balance. An obvious advantage of this bridge is that all balancing operations can be performed by varying resistances. The capacitance  $C$  may be a constant standard.

Any discussion of impedance bridge operation should include mention of Wagner ground precautions. Each portion of a bridge has a capacitance to ground as well as to all other portions. In the case of high impedance circuits and at high frequencies the capacitances are not negligible. A Wagner ground consists essentially of two bridge arms placed across the source with the common point grounded. The Wagner ground is balanced to bring the detector terminals to ground potential. When this is accomplished the stray capacitances no longer affect the balance or give spurious unbalance signals in the detector. See IMPEDANCE MEASUREMENTS. HIGH FREQUENCY. INDUCTANCE MEASUREMENT. [H 50]

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## Inductance measurement

The determination of an electromagnetic parameter of an electric circuit. The electric current in a circuit produces a magnetic field which is considered to consist of lines of magnetic flux that link the circuit. Whenever the magnetic field linking a circuit changes a voltage is induced in the circuit. The faster the change in the field the larger is the induced voltage. When there is no ferromagnetic material present the magnetic field is proportional to the current  $i$  and the induced voltage  $\mathcal{E}$  is proportional to the rate of change of current

$$v = L di/dt$$

The proportionality factor  $L$  is by definition the self inductance of the circuit. If  $i$  is measured in volts and if the rate of change of current is in amperes per second the inductance has the dimensions of henries.

The direction of the induced voltage is specified by Lenz's law which states that the current that would be produced by the induced voltage would be in a direction that opposes the change in the magnetic field. Hence the inductance of a circuit represents the tendency of the circuit to resist a change in current. This is analogous to the manner

in which the mass of an object tends to resist a change in its velocity. See INDUCTANCE. LENZ'S LAW.

If the magnetic field produced by the current in one circuit links with another circuit the relation between the voltage and the rate of change of current still holds. The proportionality factor in this case is called the mutual inductance. See COUPLED CIRCUITS.

If ferromagnetic material is present saturation and hysteresis effects may be evident for some values of current. For such cases several definitions may be introduced or the concept may be discarded entirely. An effective inductance is defined as the ratio of the effective induced voltage to the effective rate of change of current and is a function of the maximum current. When the current changes about a certain average value and the magnitude of the change is small compared to the average value the above definition specifies an incremental inductance. This inductance is a function of both the average current and the magnitude of the change.

**Inductance standards.** Coils constructed so that their dimensions and consequently their inductance remain constant over long periods of time are used as inductance standards. If the dimensions are known the inductance can be computed from the formula

$$L = NP$$

where  $N$  is the number of turns of wire comprising the inductor and  $P$  is a proportionality coefficient. Such an inductance is called a primary standard (see INDUCTOMETR). Standards are usually maintained at constant temperature to keep the coil size and therefore the inductance from changing in value.

When the inductance cannot be computed precisely it may be measured by comparing it with a primary standard and it would then be called a secondary standard.

The effect of inductance is manifested only when the current in a circuit is changing with time. Any means of measuring inductance must employ changing current. Usually the current is an alternating current of frequency  $f$  given by

$$i = I_m \sin 2\pi ft$$

with a maximum instantaneous value of  $I_m$ . The voltage induced by the changing magnetic field is

$$v = 2\pi f L I_m \cos 2\pi ft = V \cos 2\pi ft$$

where  $L$  is the self inductance in henries. The ratio of  $V$  to  $I_m$  is called the reactance of the circuit and is represented by  $X$  in

$$X = 2\pi f L = V / I_m$$

**Impedance measurement.** This is the determination of the total effect of a circuit element. Every inductance is wound with wire that has resistance. This means that every inductance has resistance and consequently it is also true that every



(emf) the charge being considered is negative  
Thus

$$E = \frac{F}{-q} = -Bl \sin \theta = -\frac{\mathcal{E}}{l}$$

or  $\mathcal{E} = Bl \sin \theta$

where  $l$  is the length of the conductor in a direction perpendicular to the field and  $\sin \theta$  is the component of the velocity that is perpendicular to the field. If  $B$  is in weber/m<sup>2</sup>,  $l$  is in meters and  $v$  is in meters/sec the emf  $\mathcal{E}$  is in volts.

This emf exists in the conductor as it moves through the field whether or not there is a closed circuit. A current would not be set up unless there were a closed circuit and then only if the rest of the circuit does not move through the field in exactly the same manner as the rod. For example, if the rod slides along stationary tracks that are connected together there will be a current in the closed circuit. However, if the two ends of the rod were connected by a wire that moved through the field with the rod, there would be an emf induced in the wire that would be equal to that in the rod and opposite in sense in the circuit. Therefore the net emf in the circuit would be zero and there would be no current.

**Emf due to change of flux** When a coil is in a magnetic field there will be a flux  $\Phi$  threading the coil the magnitude of which will depend upon the area of the coil and its orientation in the field. The flux is given by  $\Phi = BA \cos \theta$  where  $A$  is the area of the coil and  $\theta$  is the angle between the normal to the plane of the coil and the magnetic field. Whenever there is a change in the flux threading the coil there will be an induced emf in the coil while the change is taking place. The change in flux may be caused by a change in the magnetic induction of the field or by a motion of the coil. The magnitude of the induced emf depends upon the number of turns of the coil  $N$  and upon the rate of change of flux (see FARADAY'S LAW OF INDUCTION)

$$\mathcal{E} = -N \frac{d\Phi}{dt}$$

The negative sign refers to the direction of the emf in the coil that it is always in such a direction as to oppose the change that causes it (a required part of Lenz's law (see LENZ'S LAW)). If the change is an increase in flux the emf would be in a direction to oppose the increase by causing a flux in a direction opposite to that of the increasing flux. If the flux is decreasing the emf is in such a direction as to oppose the decrease that is to produce a flux that is in the same direction as the decreasing flux.

Consider the case of a flat coil of area  $A$  rotating with uniform angular velocity  $\omega$  about an axis perpendicular to a uniform magnetic field of flux density  $B$ . For any position of the coil the flux threading the coil is  $\Phi = BA \cos \theta = BA \cos \omega t$  where the zero of time is taken when  $\theta$  is zero and the

normal to the plane of the coil is parallel to the field. Then the emf induced as the coil rotates is given by

$$\mathcal{E} = -N \frac{d\Phi}{dt} = -NBA \frac{d(\cos \theta)}{dt} = NBA\omega \sin \omega t$$

The induced emf is sinusoidal, varying from zero when the plane of the coil is perpendicular to the field to a maximum value when the plane of the coil is parallel to the field.

**Self induction** If the flux threading a coil is produced by a current in the coil, any change in that current will cause a change in flux and thus there will be an induced emf while the current is changing. This process is called self induction. The emf of self induction is proportional to the rate of change of current. The ratio of the emf of induction to the rate of change of current in the coil is called the self inductance of the coil.

**Mutual induction** The process by which an emf is induced in one circuit by a change of current in a neighboring circuit is called mutual induction. Flux produced by a current in a circuit  $A$  (Fig. 2) threads or links circuit  $B$ . When there is a change of current in circuit  $A$  there is a change in the flux linking coil  $B$  and an emf is induced in circuit  $B$  while the change is taking place. Transformers operate on the principle of mutual induction. See TRANSFORMER.

The mutual inductance of two circuits is defined as the ratio of the emf induced in one circuit  $B$  to the rate of change of current in the other circuit  $A$ . For a detailed discussion of self and mutual inductance see INDUCTANCE.

**Coupling coefficient** This refers to the fraction of the flux of one circuit that threads the second circuit. If two coils  $A$  and  $B$  having turns  $N_A$  and  $N_B$  respectively are so related that all the flux of either thread both coils, the respective self inductances are

$$L_A = \frac{N_A \Phi_A}{I_A} \quad \text{and} \quad L_B = \frac{N_B \Phi_B}{I_B}$$

and the mutual inductance of the pair is given by

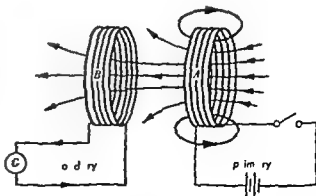


Fig. 2 Mutual induction. A emf induced in B when the current in A changes. (R. L. W. B. M. W. W. H. K. V. M. Phys. for S. S. and Eng. Eng. McGraw-Hill 1957)





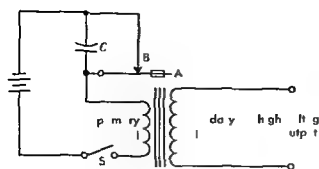


Fig 1 Typical circuit for induction coil

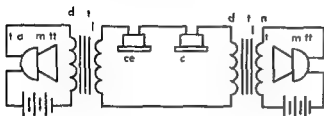


Fig 2 Inductive coils telephone circuit

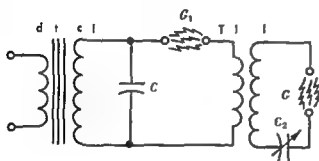


Fig 3 Circuit diagram of Tesla coil

iron core becomes magnetized and attracts the armature A. This automatically breaks the circuit to the coil through contact B and the armature. The armature is returned to its initial position by a spring and again make contact with the contact B restoring the circuit to the primary coil. The cycle is then repeated rapidly.

While current is flowing in the primary coil a magnetic field is produced. When the contact between A and B is broken the magnetic field collapses and induces a high voltage in the secondary coil similar to transformer action (see TRANSFORMER). The self-inductance of the coil must be limited therefore the core is a straight bundle of iron wires which minimize eddy current losses rather than a closed iron circuit as is used in a transformer.

The capacitor C is placed across the breaker contacts to reduce the voltage across the contacts at the moment of their opening and thus reduce sparking. Sparking is caused by the induced voltage in the primary winding resulting from the collapsing magnetic field. The capacitor allows some of the energy of the magnetic field to be converted into electrostatic energy in the capacitor rather than into heat at the contacts.

Induction coils of a different type are used in telephone circuits to step up the voltage from the transmitter and match the impedance of the line.

Therefore no interrupter contacts are necessary. The battery and primary winding are connected in series with the transmitter as in Fig 2. The secondary winding and the receiver are connected in series with the line. This circuitry reduces the required battery voltage.

Still another type of induction coil called a reactor is really a one winding transformer designed to produce a definite voltage drop for a given current (see REACTOR ELECTRIC).

In 1892 Nicola Tesla used a form of induction coil to obtain currents of very high frequency and high voltages. The oscillatory discharge of a Leyden jar was used as the interrupter. The terminal of the secondary of an induction coil are connected one to the inner coating and the other to the outer coating of an insulated Leyden jar C<sub>1</sub> (Fig 3). The circuit is completed through the primary winding of the Tesla coil and the primary gap C<sub>1</sub>. The primary of the Tesla coil consists of a half dozen turns of wire wound on a nonmagnetic core. The secondary consists of many turns. The two coils are separated by air or oil as an insulation. The alternation from the Leyden jar may have a frequency of several million cps. Hence the current induced in the secondary is not only of high voltage but also of very high frequency. [C.C.]

## Induction heating

The heating of a nominally electrical conducting material by current induced by a varying electromagnetic field.

The principle of the induction heating process is similar to that of a transformer. In Fig 1 the induction coil can be considered the primary winding of a transformer with the work piece as a single turn secondary. When an alternating current flows in the primary coil, secondary current will be induced in the work piece. The induced currents are called eddy current. The current flowing in the work piece can be considered the summation of all of the eddy current.

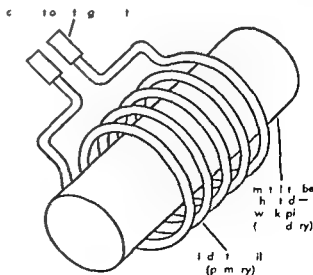


Fig 1 Basic elements of induction heating

In the design of electrical apparatus the following considerations are necessary (See CORE LOSS). However, in the case of the maximum efficiency of the coil, the spacing of the turns and the work piece and high efficiency are used to fit the maximum induced eddy current density for high heating rate.

Applications Induction heating is widely employed in the metal working industry to heat metal for soldering, brazing, annealing, hardening and for die casting.

A comparison of the electrical processes in these industries is given in Table 1.

1. Heating is conducted directly into the material. This is an extremely rapid method of heating. It is limited by the electrical power of the induction heating process. The surface of the material is heated by the method of induction heating.

2. Because of the efficiency of the heating process, the heat is concentrated in the work piece and is controlled by the shape and size of the work piece.

3. Induction heating is a very efficient process for heating materials. It is the most efficient method of heating materials.

4. It is the most efficient method of heating materials. It is the most efficient method of heating materials.

5. Start-up time is short and standby losses are low.

6. Work pieces are better heated than by other methods. Induction heating is better than other methods.

The induction heating process. The induction current in the work piece is usually parallel to the direction of the magnetic flux.

Because of the efficiency of the induction heating process, the heat is concentrated in the work piece and is controlled by the shape and size of the work piece.

The effect of the depth of the work piece is also important. The depth of the work piece is also important.

For the induction heating process, the depth of the work piece is also important. The depth of the work piece is also important.

INDUCTION HEATING SKETCH EFFECT

For the induction heating process, the depth of the work piece is also important. The depth of the work piece is also important.

Frequencies used in induction heating

Frequency f	Source of power	Uses
60-600	Industrial generators or converters	Mass production heating of large forgings, heat treating, induction heating of metal, etc.
960-10,000	Motor-generator sets	Induction heating of metal, etc.
10,000-60,000	Converters	Induction heating of metal, etc.
100,000-1,000,000	Vacuum tube heaters	Induction heating of metal, etc.
1,000,000-10,000,000	Vacuum tube heaters	Induction heating of metal, etc.

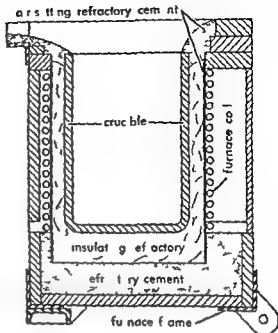


Fig. 2. Cross-section of induction heating furnace.

work piece measured at right angles to the direction of the magnetic flux. The efficiency of the induction heating process is also important.

The efficiency of the induction heating process is also important. The efficiency of the induction heating process is also important.

When the work piece is heated, the efficiency of the induction heating process is also important. The efficiency of the induction heating process is also important.

In large production units, the efficiency of the induction heating process is also important. The efficiency of the induction heating process is also important.

Power sources. The equipment used for induction heating is also important. The equipment used for induction heating is also important.

cycles) are used suitable transformers power factor correction capacitors and control equipment are required

For higher frequencies up to 10 000 cps inductor type alternators are used These are usually driven by induction motors and are available in ratings from  $7\frac{1}{2}$  to over 300 kilowatts

Converters are used for the 10 000-60 000 cps range principally for small scale melting These produce the desired frequency by repeatedly charging a large capacitor from the 60-cycle line and discharging it through an output circuit tuned to the desired frequency The output is a train of damped oscillations

For frequencies above 200 kilocycles vacuum tube oscillators are used These are self excited and are complete with high voltage rectifier oscillator tank circuit controls and instrumentation When operating from a three phase supply they put out a continuous wave of rf power

**Process use** Induction heating is used for many heat processes as shown in the table The construction of a typical melting furnace is shown in Fig 2 (see FURNACE CONSTRUCTION) An induction heater used for hardening is shown in Fig 3

Induction heating differs from other methods of heat treating in that it heats the metals very rapidly and that holding time at hardening temperature approaches zero A minimum of time is there-

fore available for metallurgical reactions, and this has a significant influence on the election of steel to be used See HEAT TREATMENT (METALS AND ALLOYS) For other electric heating methods see HEATING ELECTRIC [C.P.A.]

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## Induction motor

An alternating current motor in which the currents in the secondary winding (usually the rotor) are created solely by induction The e current result from voltages induced in the secondary by the magnetic field of the primary winding (usually the stator) An induction motor operates slightly below synchronous speed and is sometimes called an asynchronous (meaning not synchronous) motor See SYNCHRONOUS SPEED

Induction motors are the most commonly used electric motors because of their simple construction efficiency good speed regulation and low cost Polyphase induction motors come in all sizes and find wide use where polyphase power is available Single phase induction motors are found mainly in fractional horsepower sizes and those up to 25 hp where only single phase power is available See ALTERNATING CURRENT MOTOR

### POLYPHASE INDUCTION MOTORS

There are two principal types of polyphase induction motors squirrel cage and wound rotor machines The differences in these machines is in the construction of the rotor The stator construction is the same and is also identical to the stator of a synchronous motor Both squirrel cage and wound rotor machines can be designed for two- or three-phase current

**Stator** The stator of a polyphase induction motor produces a rotating magnetic field when supplied with balanced polyphase voltage (equal in magnitude and 90 electrical degrees apart for two-phase motors 120 electrical degree apart for three phase motors) The  $n$  voltages are supplied to  $n$  windings which are identical in all respects The currents resulting from the  $n$  voltage produce a magnetomotive force (mmf) of constant magnitude which rotates at synchronous speed The speed is proportional to the frequency of the supply voltage and inversely proportional to the number of poles contained on the stator

Figure 1a is a simplified diagram of a three-phase two-pole connected stator supplied with currents  $I_1$ ,  $I_2$  and  $I_3$  Each stator winding produces a pulsating mmf which varies sinusoidally with time The resultant mmf of the three windings (Fig 1c) is constant in magnitude and rotates at synchronous speed Figure 1f shows the direction of the mmf in the stator for times  $t_1$ ,  $t_2$  and  $t_3$  shown in Fig 1a and how follows the resultant mmf

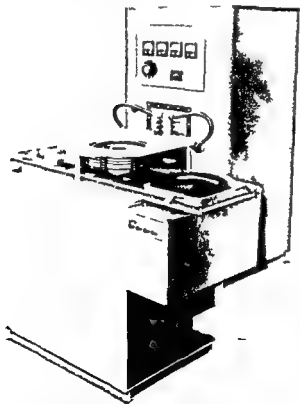
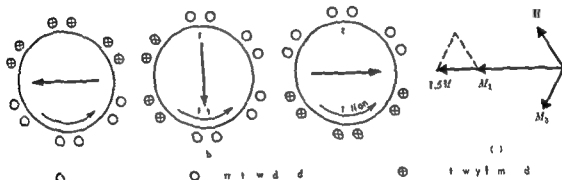
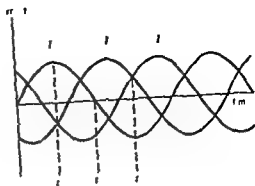
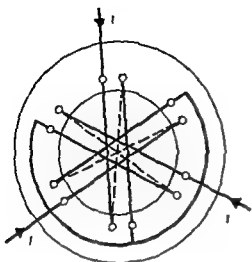


Fig 3 Manually loaded induction heater for hardening of gears The gear is loaded on a spindle in the coil in the center The spindle is the gear heating a distance of 10 to 15 inches (Westinghouse Electric Corp)



Fg l Th ph d et m i ( ) St t w d  
l g d u = (b) R i t g f i d (c) Mmf p d ed  
by t t w d g

1. The ...

$$\lambda = \frac{120f}{f} \text{ fdm}$$

h f th fr q n yles p d a d p  
th n ml i t i poles F y g en f  
q f p i th v h u peed de  
t m ed b th mb of h le F 60 ycl f e  
q two-pol m i h synchr n u pe d  
f 3600 pm f p l m t 1800 pm a d o  
f r d i l f tat wi d g Wi ni cs  
t r i m sr

Squirrel cage rotor Figs 9 a h w the b  
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 Th l r k e d g l e d t p e v t g g n g  
 p e t g b e l w n l p e e d l n d t r e d  
 d e Th d g p d p t f r r e n t  
 th t l i l m th l t g d e d t h e t r  
 l a i s t h t t f l T l i m b l e f p o l n  
 l p o l e g t a l e q u a l t h m b e r  
 l p o l e d h y t t w d g

3 h w h w th tw m t r l ment

1. A co-located lockwork that is of the type that

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 t m bars i wa d ed cti n Currents will flow  
 i these b r in the am d rection The e curre s  
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When the idling led the rotor to precess synchronously, the precession frequency was measured. At this speed the precession frequency was not a function of the flux with respect to the rotor conductors. As a result, there is no output induced in the

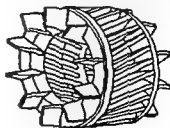


Fig 2 Sq l e g t f i d c t m t

rotor and no rotor current flows. As load is applied the rotor speed decreases slightly causing an increase in rotor voltage and rotor current and a consequent increase in torque developed by the rotor. The reduction in speed is therefore sufficient to develop a torque equal and opposite to that of the load. Light loads require only slight reductions in speed; heavy loads require greater reduction. The difference between the synchronous speed  $N$  and the operating speed  $n$  is the slip speed. Slip  $s$  is conveniently expressed as a percentage of synchronous speed

$$s = \frac{N - n}{N} \times 100\%$$

When the rotor is stationary a large voltage is induced in the rotor. The frequency of this rotor voltage is the same as that of the supply voltage. The frequency  $f_2$  of rotor voltage at any speed is

$$f = f_1 s$$

where  $f_1$  is the frequency of the supply voltage and  $s$  is the slip expressed as a decimal. The voltage  $e_2$  induced in the rotor at any speed is

$$e_2 = (e) s$$

where  $e$  is the rotor voltage at standstill. The reactance  $x$  of the rotor is a function of its standstill reactance  $x$  and slip

$$x_2 = (x) s$$

The impedance of the rotor at any speed is determined by the reactance  $x$  and the rotor resistance  $r$ . The rotor current is

$$i_2 = \frac{e_2}{\sqrt{r^2 + x_2^2}} = \frac{(e)s}{\sqrt{r^2 + (xs)^2}} = \frac{e}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{r}{s}\right)^2 + (x)^2}}$$

This equation shows that for small value of slip the rotor current is small and possesses a high power factor. When slip becomes large the  $r/s$  term becomes small, current increases and the current lags the voltage by a large phase angle. Standstill (or starting) current is large and lags the voltage by 50–70°. Only in phase or unity power factor rotor currents are in space phase with the air gap flux and can therefore produce torque. The current  $i_2$  contains both a unity power factor component  $i_1$  and a reactive component  $i_r$ . The maximum value of  $i_1$  and therefore maximum torque are obtained when slip is of the correct value to make  $r/s$  equal to  $x$ . If the value of  $x$  is changed the slip at which maximum torque is developed must also change. If  $r_2$  is doubled and  $s$  is doubled the current  $i_1$  is not changed and the torque is unchanged.

This feature provides a means of changing the speed torque characteristics of the motor. Figure 4 curve 1 shows a typical characteristic curve of an induction motor. If the resistance of the rotor bars were doubled without making any other change in

the motor it would develop the characteristic of curve 2 which shows twice the slip of curve 1 for any given torque. Further increases in the rotor resistance could result in curve 3. When  $r$  is made equal to  $x$  maximum torque will be developed at standstill as in curve 4. The curves show that higher resistance rotors give higher starting torque. However, since the motor's normal operating range is on the upper portion of the curve, the curves also show that a higher resistance rotor results in more variation in speed from no load to full load (or poorer speed regulation) than the lower resistance rotor. Higher resistance rotors also reduce motor efficiency. Except for their characteristic low starting torque, low resistance rotors would be desirable for most applications.

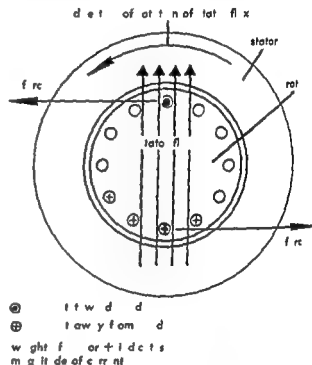


Fig 3 Force on the rotor winding

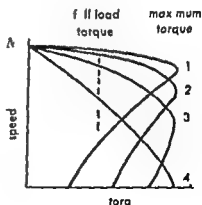


Fig 4 Speed torque characteristics of the polyphase induction motor. Curve 1 is for low resistance rotor. Curve 2 is for medium resistance rotor. Curve 3 is for high resistance rotor. Curve 4 is for rotor resistance equal to rotor reactance, producing maximum torque at standstill (maximum torque at zero speed).

Wound rotor A wound rotor induction motor can provide both high starting torque and good speed regulation. This is accomplished by adding external resistance to the rotor circuit during starting and removing the resistance after speed is attained.

The wound rotor has a polyphase winding in the stator winding and must be wound for the same number of poles. Voltage are induced in these windings by the rotating magnetic field in the stator bars. The windings are connected in series so that connections may be made to external impedances usually called slip rings and brushes. The current in the slip rings is usually limited by a current limiting device.

Figure 5 shows the connection for a rheostat used to control the speed of the motor. The rheostat is connected in series with the rotor winding. The rheostat is controlled by a switch which is operated by a relay. The relay is controlled by a speed feedback system. The speed feedback system is a closed loop system which compares the actual speed with the desired speed and produces a control signal to the rheostat.

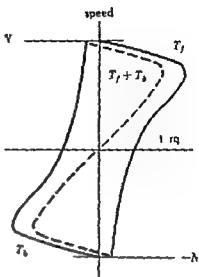
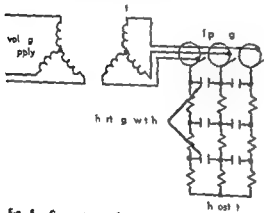


Fig 7 Torque-slip characteristic graph for a wound rotor induction motor

Method of speed control can be obtained in Fig 4. The method of speed control is inherently nonlinear and results in the motor being a variable speed motor rather than an essentially constant speed motor. For other means of controlling speed of polyphase induction motors and for other types of alternating current motor.

### SINGLE-PHASE INDUCTION MOTORS

Single phase induction motor displays poor performance characteristics than polyphase machines, but are used where polyphase supply is not available. They are most commonly small sizes (1/4 hp or less) in domestic and industrial applications. Their particular disadvantage is low power factor, low efficiency and the need for special starting devices.

The rotor of a single-phase induction motor is of the squirrel-cage type. The stator has a main winding which produces pulsating field. At the same time, the pulsating field can be decomposed into two rotating fields that will rotate in opposite directions. However, since the rotor is rotating, it produces a flux at right angles in both phases and the main field and thereby produces a rotating field comparable to that produced by the stator of a two-phase motor.

An explanation of this is based on the concept that a pulsating field is the equivalent of two purely rotating fields of one-half the magnitude of the resultant pulsating field. In Figure 6,  $\phi_m$  is the maximum value of the stator flux which is shown by its two components  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  which represent the two oppositely rotating fields. The equivalent magnitudes of  $\phi_m/2$ . Each component  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  produces torque  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  in the motor. Figure 7 shows that the sum of the torques is equal to the torque produced by the resultant field. The resultant field is the sum of the two components  $\phi_1$  and  $\phi_2$  and the torque is the sum of the torques  $T_1$  and  $T_2$ .



Fig 6 Flux associated with the single-phase induction motor

This machine has good performance at high speed. But to make this motor useful it must have some way of producing a starting torque. The method by which this starting torque is obtained designates the type of the single phase induction motor.

**Split phase motor** This motor has two stator windings: the customary main winding and a starting winding located 90 electrical degrees from the main winding as in Fig. 8a. The starting winding has fewer turns of smaller wire to give a higher resistance to reactance ratio than the main winding. Therefore their currents  $I_m$  (main winding) and  $I_s$  (starting winding) are out of time phase as in Fig. 8c when the windings are supplied by a common voltage  $V$ . These currents produce an elliptical

field (equivalent to a uniform rotating field superimposed on a pulsating field) which causes a unidirectional torque at standstill. This torque will start the motor. When sufficient speed has been attained the circuit of the starting winding can be opened by a centrifugal switch and the motor will operate with a characteristic illustrated by the dashed curve of Fig. 7.

**Capacitor motor** The stator windings of this motor are similar to the split phase motor. However the starting winding is connected to the supply through a capacitor (Fig. 9a). This results in a starting winding current which leads the applied voltage. The motor then has winding currents at standstill which are nearly 90° apart in time as well as 90° apart in space. High starting torque and

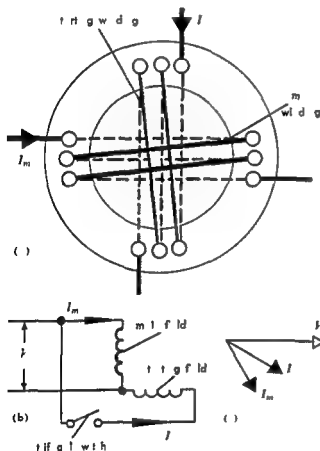


Fig. 8 Split phase motor (a) Windings (b) Winding connections (c) Vector diagram

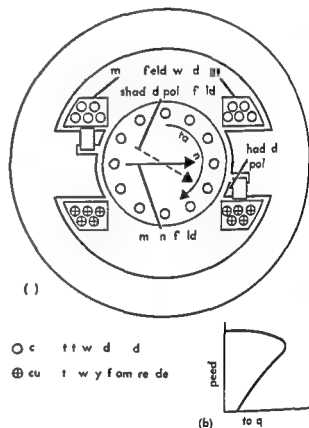


Fig. 10 Shaded pole motor (a) Cross sectional view (b) Characteristic

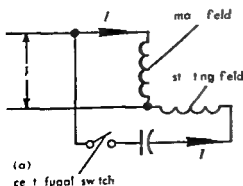


Fig. 9 Capacitor motor (a) Winding connections (b) Vector diagram (c) Characteristic

high power factor as they are obtained. The starting winding circuit can be opened by a centrifugal switch when the motor comes up to speed. A typical high speed motor is shown in Fig. 9c.

In some motors two capacitors are used. When the motor is first connected to the line, the two capacitors are connected in parallel in the starting circuit. As the motor speeds up, the capacitors are disconnected by a centrifugal switch in the other motor series with the starting winding. The motor has high starting torque and good power factor.

**Shaded pole motor.** This motor is used extensively where low power and large starting torque are required, as in a squirrel-cage motor. It is used with a salient pole stator excited by the supply. Each salient pole is fitted with a portion of the pole face can be enclosed by a short-circuited winding, which has no coil.

The main winding produces a field between the poles as in Fig. 10. The shaded coil acts to delay the flux passing through them, so that it lags the flux in the unshaded portions. This gives a sweeping magnet action across the pole face and consequently a rotation of the rotor bars opposite the pole face and results at once on the stator. This torque is much smaller than that of a split-phase motor, but is adequate for many purposes. A typical motor is shown in Fig. 10b.

For the single-phase iteming-current motor see REPT. O. MOTOR. OVER A. MOTOR. For synchronous motors built for single-phase and hysteresis motor. R. L. C. T. C. M. O. R. [A. G. C.]  
Bibliography: A. F. W. Ch. T. C. M. O. R. and A. G. C. O. R. d. Alt. at x-c. T. M. A. S. 3d ed. 1913.

## Inductometer

A device for winding the inductance may be fed at the rate of primary standard rate and the inductance may be adjusted by means of the coil to a value desired by means of a movable iron core.

The device is used to measure the inductance of a circuit by comparing it with the rate of change of magnetic flux. For flux linkage  $\lambda$  is the rate of change of flux.

$$= \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

If the magnetic material is present, the flux  $\phi$  is proportional to the magnetomotive force  $F$ .

$$\phi = PF$$

The proportionality factor  $P$  is called the permeance of the path. The permeance of the path is equal to  $\frac{1}{\mu}$  times the reluctance of the path. The reluctance of the path is equal to  $\frac{l}{\mu A}$  where  $l$  is the length of the path and  $A$  is the cross-sectional area.

$$= \frac{1}{\mu} \frac{d\lambda}{dt}$$

For the purpose of this section the equation is written as  $\frac{d\lambda}{dt} = L \frac{di}{dt}$  where  $L$  is the inductance.

$$L = \frac{\lambda}{i}$$

The formula is derived, assuming that all of the flux link with all of the current. In reality there is some flux that link with only part of the current. When the formula is corrected to include partial linkages  $\lambda$  and the permeance of the path of the flux that enters into the partial linkages as well as the complete linkage  $\lambda$ .

$$L = \frac{\lambda}{i} P + \frac{\lambda}{i} P$$

A standard inductance is constructed by winding a coil on a ferrim having dimensions that are tabular. Some material does not absorb moisture over the years and consequently has a constant inductance. The material on which a standard inductance is wound must not be subject to such changes. A standard inductance has been found suitable. A helical groove is cut in the material, and the coil is placed in this groove.

The wire should be soft enough to conform to the groove. It should be annealed so that the resistance and the current density are uniform. The coil and the ferrim are maintained at a constant temperature to reduce the tendency for rapid inductance variations. The material selected for the form should have a low temperature coefficient of expansion. In addition, negligible aging period change is size.

If the magnetic field produced by the current in the link with an external circuit, the voltage-rate-of-change-of-current is the same as the voltage-rate-of-change-of-current in the coil. The proportionality factor in this case is called the mutual inductance between the two circuits. The mutual inductance is represented by the symbol  $M$  or  $M$ .

$$M = \frac{\lambda}{i}$$

where  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$  are the numbers of turns in the respective circuits that link with the common flux and  $P$  is the permeance of the path of the common flux. The mutual inductance is often written

$$M = k\sqrt{L_1 L_2}$$

where  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are the self inductances of the divided circuits, and  $k$  is a number less than unity called the coupling coefficient.

The equation with the formula for self inductance gives

$$P P_2 = k P$$

where  $P_1$  is the permeance of the path for flux produced by one circuit and  $P$  is the permeance of the path for the flux produced by the other circuit. If there were no leakage flux,  $P_1 P$  and  $P_2$  would all be equal, and  $k$  would be unity.

**Campbell standard mutual inductance.** This has a primary winding consisting of two coils placed in a cylindrical ferrimular that is used for the standard self inductance. On winding is placed in the groove near the head of the ferrim. The coupling factor between the coils is adjusted so that the magnetic field produced by one coil will exactly cancel that produced by the other on



This machine has good performance at high speed. But to make this motor useful it must have some way of producing a starting torque. The method by which this starting torque is obtained designates the type of the single phase induction motor.

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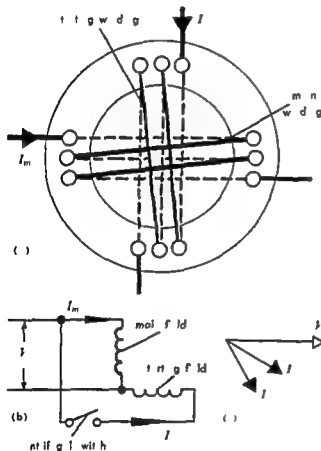


Fig. 8 Split phase motor (a) Winding (b) Winding connections (c) Vector diagram

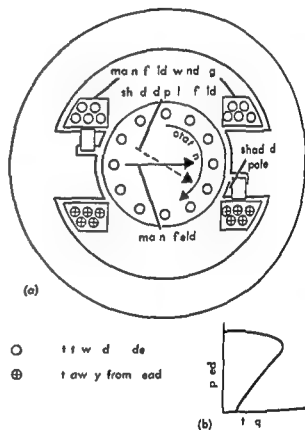


Fig. 10 Shaded pole motor (a) Cross sectional view (b) Characteristic

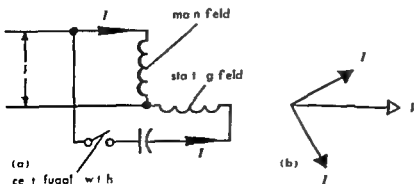
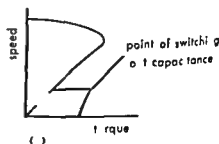


Fig. 9 Capacitor motor (a) Winding connections (b) Vector diagram (c) Characteristic



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Shaded pole motor Th m t s u e d e x t e n  
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ar t e q u e d s i n f a A q u i r r e l e g t i s  
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p p l y E a h a b e n t p o l e s l o t t e d t h a t p o  
t n o f t h e p o l e f a c e a b e e n l e d b y h o r t  
e c u t e d w d n h i d n g o i l

The main wind prod e s f l d b t w e e n t h  
p o l i n F g . 10 T h h a d n c o l e t t o d l a v  
the flux pa n g t h r o g h t h m s t h a t i l l a g t h e  
f l t h u h d e d p o r t T h u s g e s s w e e p m  
m a g n e t i c t i n a c o s t h e p o l e f a c e n d e n e q  
u i l y a o s t h e o t h r a p p i t h p o l e f c  
a n d r e s u l t n a t o q u e t h t r T h t q u e s  
m h m a i l l e r t h a t h e t r q e f i a p l i p h s m o  
t o b r i t i s d q a t f m n y o p e t i s A t y p  
a l t h r t u h w n F g 10b

F r t h e r i n g l e - p h a e a l t r n t u n - c u r r e n t m o  
t R E P U L S I O N M O T O R U n i v e r s a l m o t o F r  
y n h r o u m t s b i l t i n l e - p h a H y s  
t e s i s M O T O R R E L L E C T A N C E M O T O R [ A c c o ]  
B l l g p h y A F P u h t T C L l y d a n d  
A C C o a d A l t a t t g e e s W h n 3 d e d  
19 4

## Inductometer

A l l f w i l k w n d u i T h m d r i  
m y b e f i e d a i n t h e a c f p m r y t a d d  
t h e m d t a e m a y b a d j t a b l b y m e o f  
s w i t c h e s o t u i v r a b l b y m a n o f a  
m b l e l e t r i t n

F a d a y s l a w t e s t a t t h l i g e i n d u c e d  
n p p r t i n l i t h e r t e o f c h a g e f  
m a g n e t f l x F r f l o l i n k s g h t r n s f  
e c u t

$$= \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

I f t h f r r m g n u m t r i l p r e s e n t t h e  
f l o p p o r t i t h m g n e t o m t f e

$$\phi = P \Psi$$

T h p p o r t a l i t y f a t P a l l e d t h p e r m e  
n f i t h f l p t h n d l t h c u t p g  
t h r g h t l T h e r t o f h g f i l x s q u a l  
t V P i m e s t h e f i c h g f u r r t

$$= \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

D e c a t h p p o r t a l i t y f e t r n t h u s e q t o n  
d f i e d a t h d i z L

$$L = \frac{1}{P}$$

T h f o r m u l a o d e r e d a m e s t h a t l i o f t h e  
f l x l i k w i t h l i f t h c r r n t I n r e a l i t y t h r e i  
s m e f l u x t h a t l i n k s w i t h n l p a r t o f t h e c u r r e n t  
W h e n t h e f o r m l e c r e c t e d t o i c l i d e p a r t i a l  
l i n k s e l a n d t h e p e r m a n c f i t h p t h o f t h  
f l u x t h a t e t r s i n t o t h p a r t i a l l i n k a g e s w e l l a  
t h e c m p l e t e l i n k a g e s

$$L = \frac{1}{P} + \frac{1}{P_p}$$

A s t a n d a r d i n c t a n c e i c o n t r u c t e d b y w i n d i n g  
i l o n a f r m h a n g d i m e s i o n t h a t a r e t a b l e  
S o m e m a t e r i a l d r y o t r b o r b m i t u e e t t h e  
y e r s a d q u e n t l y c h a n g e o t u l y i n z e  
T h e m a t e r i a l o n w h i c h s t a n d r d i d u c t a c e i  
w u d m u t n o t b e s b j e c t t h c h n g e M a r b l e  
a d s o m s y n t h e t i c s h a b e e f o u n d u s a b l e A  
h l i a l g r o o i c t n t h e m a t e r i a l a n d t h c l i s  
p l c e d i n t h s g r o o e

The w i r l i d b e s o f t e u g h t i n f o r m t t h e  
g r o o e l i t h l d b e a n e a l e d s o t h a t t h r e s i t i v  
a n d t h c u r r e n t d e n s i t y e u n i f r m T h e c o i l a n d  
t f r m s m a i n t a i n d t c o n s t a n t t e m p e r a t u r e t o  
r d t h t e n d e n c y f r r a p i d i r c t i s c e a r a  
t o T h m a t e r i a l s e l e c t e d f o r t h e f r m h l d  
h a a l o w t e m p e r a t u r e c o e f f i c i e n t o f p n i n  
a d d t o t n g l i g i b l e g p e r i o d c h g n z e

I f t h e m a g n e t f l d p r o d e d b y t h c u r r e n t i  
n e c r e u t l i n k s w i t h a o t h e r c r u t t h e o l i a g e  
a t e o f c h n g e o f c r e n t r e l t n i l l h l d T h e  
p o r t o n a l t f c t o i n t h i s c e c a l l e d t h  
m u a l i d c t a n c e b e t w e e n t h e t w o c r u t T h e  
m t a l i n d c t a n c e r e p e s e n t e d b y t h s y m b o l W  
i s e r d e n t l y

$$W = \frac{1}{L} P^2$$

w h e r e l a d l a r e t h n u m b e s o f t r n s i n t h  
r e s p e c t e c u r c u t t h a t l i k w i t h t h e c o m m n f l u x  
d P z s t h e p e r m a n c e f t h e p t h f t h e c o m  
m o n f l T h e m t a l i n d c t a n c e i s f i n w r i t t n

$$W = k \sqrt{L L'}$$

w h e r e L i a d L a r e t h l f n d u t e s o f t h e  
n d v i d l t a n d k i s a n u m b e r l e s s t h a n  
u n i t y l l e d t h c o u p l i n g c o e f f i c i e n t

T h e s e q u i w i t h t h e f o r m u l a f o r s e l f i n d c t  
g i c

$$P P = k P$$

w h e r e P t h p r m e o f t h e p a t h f o f l u  
e d u c e d b y n c u t n d P i t h e p e r m n e  
o f t h e p t h f r t h e f l u x p o d u c e d b y t h c u r  
c u t I f t h e w e n l e a k a g f l u x P P a d P  
w u l d l i b e q u a l k w o u l d b e u n i t y

C a m p b e l l s t a n d a r d m u t u a l i n d u c t a n c e T h  
h s a p r i m a r y w i n d i n g c o n t i n g f t w i l s  
p l e d n a c y l i n d r l f r m a m i l s t t h a t u d  
f t h t o d a d l l i n d u t O c w i n d i n g s  
p l e d i n t h g r o o n = h d o f t h f o r m T h e  
e u l t i n g p c b e t w e e n t h e c l a d j u t e d o  
t h t h e m a g n e t i f l d p r o d e d b y o o l w i l l  
x i l y c a n c e l t h a t p o d u c e d b y t h e t h e r n a

ring concentric with the supporting cylinder. The flux density in the neighborhood of this ring is very low. A secondary winding is placed on a form that supports it centered as nearly as possible on the zero-field ring. Any inaccuracies in placement of the coil or subsequent slight displacement will have nearly negligible effect on the flux enclosed and consequently upon the mutual inductance.

**Ayrton and Perry inductometer** This inductometer consists of two coils (see Fig 1). One is wound on the outside of a spherical form, the other is wound on the inside of a spherical form. The first coil on its form is placed inside the second coil on its form. The inner coil can be turned through 180° to change the direction of the mutual linkages and the sign of the mutual inductance. If the two coils are connected in series, the effective inductance is equal to the sum of the self inductances plus twice the mutual inductance.

$$L = L_1 + L_2 + 2M$$

The spherical forms make it possible to have the individual inductances as well as the maximum

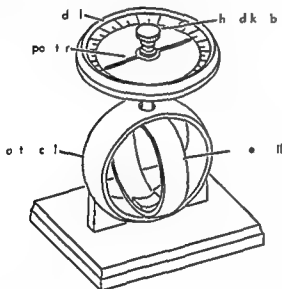


Fig 1 Schematic drawing of Ayrton and Perry variable inductometer

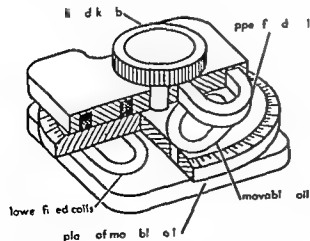


Fig 2 Schematic drawing of Brooks variable inductor

mutual inductance all nearly equal. This tends to increase the maximum effective inductance of the series combination. More important, it results in a minimum effective inductance of nearly zero. A disadvantage of this construction is that the calibration of the effective inductance  $L$  for angular displacement  $\theta$  between the two coils is irregular. Interpolation is always unsatisfactory with an irregular calibration. Linear interpolation generally cannot be used. If the scale is always set on a calibrated point to avoid interpolation, the inductometer must be no better than one that is varied by means of a switch.

**Brooks variable inductometer** This inductometer provides a nearly linear scale. It consists of four fixed coils and two movable ones (see Fig 2). The two movable coils, side by side in a plane, are sandwiched between two pairs of fixed coils. With the movable coils directly between the fixed coils, the mutual inductance is a maximum. By moving the coils in their plane so that the coil previously between two particular coils is placed between the other two coils, the mutual inductance is again a maximum but its sign has been changed. As in the Ayrton and Perry device, the series connected inductance is

$$L = L_1 + L_2 + 2M$$

By using link-shaped coils of special design, it is possible to obtain an inductance whose calibration is quite linear over most of the range. The calibration departs from linear a slight amount near both ends of the scale.

The sandwich-type construction of the Brooks inductometer contributes to the stability of its calibration. Any tendency for axial displacement of the movable coils from between the fixed coils will be accompanied by a similar displacement toward the other two fixed coils, making the net change in mutual inductance negligible. See INDUCTANCE MEASUREMENT.

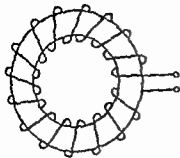
[H 50]

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## Inductor

A device for introducing inductance into a circuit. The term covers devices with a wide range of uses, size, and type, including components for electric wave filters, tuned circuits, electrical measuring circuit, and energy storage, etc.

Inductors are classified as fixed, adjustable, and variable. All are made either with or without magnetic material. Inductors without magnetic core are called air-core coils, although the actual core material may be a ceramic plate or some other nonmagnetic material. Inductors with magnetic core are called iron-core coils. A wide variety of magnetic materials is available, with different characteristics. Little iron. Magnetic cores for inductors for low frequency or high energy ratings are most commonly made from thin iron



## T d i l

Iron steel Some iron-ore inducitors with re-  
sistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot

**Fixed inductors** In fixed inductors the  
resistance of the inductor is fixed and the position of  
the coil is fixed with the coil.

A fixed inductor is fixed inductor with  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot

**Adjustable inductors** The either have tap  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot

**Variable inductors** The either have tap  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot  
resistance of 10 ohms per foot and 100 ohms per foot

[M. R. W. S. P.]

## Industrial control

Cost of production of the product is the  
sum of the cost of the material and the  
cost of the labor and the cost of the overheads  
and the cost of the profit.

**Cost control** The cost of the product is the  
sum of the cost of the material and the  
cost of the labor and the cost of the overheads  
and the cost of the profit.

Industrial control The industrial control  
system is the system of the product  
cost and the standard cost.

With the industrial control system the  
production order is the order of the  
material and the labor and the overheads  
and the profit.

**Product cost system** is employed in the  
industrial control system. The cost of the  
product is the sum of the cost of the  
material and the labor and the overheads  
and the profit.

**Process cost system** is employed in the  
industrial control system. The cost of the  
product is the sum of the cost of the  
material and the labor and the overheads  
and the profit.

**Standard cost system** is employed in the  
industrial control system. The cost of the  
product is the sum of the cost of the  
material and the labor and the overheads  
and the profit.

**Budget control** The budget control system  
is the system of the budget and the  
actual cost. The budget is the sum of the  
cost of the material and the labor and the  
overheads and the profit.

An estimate of the cost of the product  
is the budget and the actual cost.

ring concentric with the supporting cylinder. The flux density in the neighborhood of this ring is very low. A secondary winding is placed on a form that supports it centered as nearly as possible on the zero field ring. Any inaccuracies in placement of the coil or subsequent slight displacement will have nearly negligible effect on the flux enclosed and consequently upon the mutual inductance.

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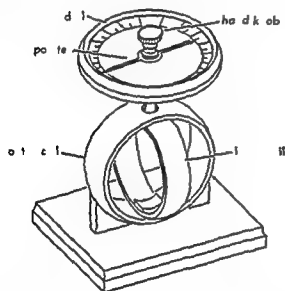


Fig 1 Schematic drawing of Ayrton and Perry inductometer

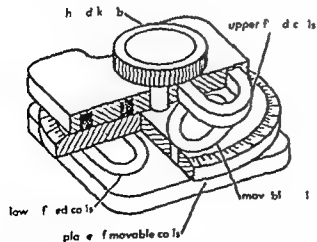


Fig 2 Schematic drawing of Brooks variable inductometer

mutual inductance all nearly equal. This tends to increase the maximum effective inductance of the series combination. More important, it results in a minimum effective inductance of nearly zero. A disadvantage of this construction is that the calibration of the effective inductance  $L$  for angular displacement  $\theta$  between the two coils is irregular. Interpolation is always unsatisfactory with an irregular calibration. Linear interpolation generally cannot be used. If the scale is always set on a calibrated point to avoid interpolation, the inductometer in use is no better than one that is varied by means of switches.

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[H 40]

**Bibliography** F. A. Laws, *Critical Measurements*, 2d ed., 1938. M. H. Stout, *Basic Electrical Measurements*, 1950.

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development of budget elements. A budget must originate with the individual supervisor who is responsible for controlling expenditures at a particular level. Thus a plant operating budget reflecting forward estimates of departmental costs and expenses must stem from the department manager or foreman. Guidance is furnished by management but the frequently used procedure wherein budgets are created and imposed from above falls short of its prime purpose to achieve effective control.

Budgets in their form and content are normally designed to follow the accounting classifications in use for accurate comparisons to actual performance.

An over-all budget for a divisionalized multi-plant manufacturing company will consist of many segments derived from many sources within the business, culminating in final budgeted income and balance sheet statements comparable to those normally supplied to top management.

An integrated budget control includes objectives as formal statements of planned goals for one- and five-year or longer forward periods; budgets in the form of statements of proposed income and expenses and financial condition detailed by months for a one-year forward period; and in more general form for the longer period, all designed to achieve the stated objectives and performance reports that compare actual results with budget figures together with explanations of variances.

Detailed budgets at the operating levels and the integration of the same with high level objectives and over-all budget program provide essential techniques for sound top management action. See INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING [JPR]

## Industrial engineering

As defined by the American Institute of Industrial Engineer, Industrial Engineering is concerned with the designing, improvement and in tallation of integrated system of men, materials and equipment, drawing upon specialized knowledge and skill in the mathematical, physical and social science together with the principle and method of engineering analysis and design to specify, predict and evaluate the results to be obtained from such system. Industrial engineering applications are to be found in offices, stores, hospitals, restaurants, hotels and on farms. Most industrial engineering activities are in manufacturing concerns.

**Functions of industrial engineering.** Two major functions of the industrial engineering department are analysis and improvement of method and the measurement and reduction of cost.

**Methods improvement.** The most economical method of performing an activity is developed and standardized. Then the operator is trained to perform the job in the specified method. Finally the work is measured and a time standard is established. The process of making a part or doing a piece of work is studied before a specific operation is analyzed. When warranted a study of worker motion may be made to find the best manual method of performing the task.

A study of system and procedures, layout of equipment, method of handling material and flow of work are often part of such methods improvement.

Traditionally an operator, his method and the equipment he uses were studied after a product had been designed and put into production. Today the economy of manufacture is being considered in the early stages of the design of a product and the development of its manufacturing method. Design of a product can materially affect the number of parts the product will have and the number and kind of operations required to manufacture it. Although motion and time study of work already in production produces large annual savings, even greater savings are possible by bringing the industrial engineer into the picture at the outset.

Some companies have methods laboratories in which experimental production lines and work place mockups are constructed and tested. The full force of design engineer, product designer, industrial engineer and manufacturing group is brought to bear on each aspect of designing a product for greatest economy of manufacture as well as for appearance, safety of operation, serviceability and function.

### Work measurement and labor cost control

Time study and administration of wage incentive for direct factory labor were originally the main functions of the industrial engineer. Work measurement and labor cost control are still his major activities. To control labor costs fully it is necessary to establish time standards for each factory operation and then through records of output determine how well each worker performs against the standard. Such a performance index may be determined for each worker by the day or by the week. In many plants the worker is paid a wage incentive laid upon his performance (see WAGE INCENTIVES). The establishment of a labor standard is a major responsibility and one that only a competent and well trained person can perform satisfactorily.

There are four methods for measuring work which are acceptable: the lay-out for wage incentive. The object of work measurement is to determine the time that a qualified operator should take to perform a task when working at a normal pace. This time standard when converted into money value is called a piece rate. In other cases the standard time value is used as the basis for an incentive wage payment plan.

**Time study.** Although time study data may be obtained by a motion picture camera, timing machine, timing tape or a dial or an electronic timer, the decimal minute stopwatch is most frequently used as the measuring device.

**Elemental data.** In department or plant work similar but not identical operations are performed. Work elements are defined as time values assigned to each of the elemental time values are established by time study or from motion time data.

**Pre-determined motion time data.** All manual work can be divided into fundamental motions.





company was confronted daily with the decision whether to pour concrete. If the concrete were poured and 0.15 in. or more of rain fell in the subsequent 36-hour period, damage of \$5,000 would result. The cost of protecting the newly poured concrete from rain would be \$400. To minimize the total expense of a series of such repetitive decisions (optimization of the operation) it follows from the principle of the calculated risk that protective measures should be taken only when  $P > C/L$ , where  $P$  is the probability of 0.15 in. or more of rain within 36 hours,  $C$  is the cost of protective measures (\$400), and  $L$  is the contingent loss (\$5,000). For this particular case under the actual weather occurring during a season's operation, the total expense (cost plus loss) would turn out to be \$85,000 if protective measures were taken \$72,800 if protective measures were taken every day regardless of anticipated weather, \$32,600 if protective measures were taken only on days when there was a 50-50 chance of this amount of rain, and \$24,400 if protective measures were taken only on days when the probability of the critical amount of rainfall exceeded 0.08, that is, in ratio of \$400/\$5,000.

This approach can be generalized to include more complex decisions and relations have been developed by J. C. Thompson and C. W. Brier (1955) to measure the economic utility of weather information. In practice, the formal methods are frequently used and the fundamental principle described here is handled in a qualitative manner by close collaboration between the meteorologist and the user of weather information.

The substantial economic significance of weather in problems of business and industry has been emphasized by a survey conducted by the U.S. Weather Bureau in which an attempt was made to assign monetary values to the saving or profits realized through applications of daily weather reports for recall, storm warnings, and past weather record. The order of magnitude of the total for the United States was \$1,000,000,000 annually.

Some measure of the economic toll of severe or unusual weather conditions is provided by data assembled by the National Board of Fire Underwriters which indicated that claims totalling \$866,000,000 were paid as a result of 72 major hurricanes, tornadoes, wind storms, hail storms, and rain storms during the period from 1919 to 1947 inclusive. The losses represent inurance losses not total property damage and include only in those in which claims within a single state exceeded \$1,000,000.

The economic benefit that could be achieved in a single industry, the petroleum industry, by only a modest improvement in forecast of anticipated average temperature conditions is shown in a balance sheet which has been analyzed with the result that potential reduction in tankage and inventory cost has been conservatively estimated to be approximately \$100,000,000 per year. These savings would be realized

by improvements in heating oil scheduling made possible through better estimate of expected peak heating requirements available from forecasts of anticipated temperature conditions.

As a result of the economic significance of the weather factor in a variety of industrial applications, there exists in meteorology a specialized activity on the part of professional meteorologists to serve the specific needs which lie outside the general public responsibilities of the U.S. Weather Bureau. This service is provided either by staff meteorologists employed by particular companies or by consultant meteorologists who work for several clients. Approximately 90% of the more than 7,000 professional meteorologists in the United States are engaged in some facet of industrial meteorology. A substantial number of these are employed by commercial airlines where the need for specialized weather information is vital for safe and efficient operations (see AERONAUTICAL METEOROLOGY). Gas and electric utility loads, highways and street maintenance, outdoor construction work, marine transportation, retail merchandizing and advertising, flood control, design, air pollution, building and plant design, atmospheric corrosion, agricultural planning and production scheduling, and air conditioning and heating design are but a few of the activities in which the industrial meteorologist has found a demand for his service.

Annual conference on industrial meteorology are sponsored by the Committee on Industrial Meteorology of the American Meteorological Society. That society has established a program for the certification of consulting meteorologists who meet rigorous standards of knowledge, experience, and adherence to high standards of ethical practice.

[T.F.V.]

**Bibliography.** American Meteorological Society. Selective annotated bibliography on industrial meteorology. *Weatherwise*, vol. 10, no. 2, 1953. J. C. Thompson and C. W. Brier. The economic utility of weather forecasts. *Monthly Weather Review*, 78(7): 113-121, 1950. J. C. Thompson and C. W. Brier. The economic utility of weather forecasts. *Monthly Weather Review*, 83(11): 219-23, 1955.

## Industrial microbiology

The study, utilization, and control of the microorganism capable of economically producing desirable substances or changes in plants.

**Industrial fermentation criteria.** M. J. Morgan et al. The industrially important fungi have certain outstanding characteristics. They must be able to grow rapidly on a suitable substrate and to be cultivated easily in large quantities. They should be able to carry out the particular fermentation under comparatively simple and workable modifications of environmental conditions. They should maintain physiological content in various conditions and produce economically a high quality product. Also call the most suitable method

types a d gasoline and d e l engines Liquid petroleum h s recently been introduced a a f el in the field C n e o k t r e a i l a b l e for exist ing equipment and some manufa tu ers offer tru ks so-powered a orig al equipment Direct current r qu red f r ch arg ing storag batt s s p ro id ed by motor g n r t sets o by metal di k r vacuum t be rectifiers (see STORAGE BATTERY)

El t u trucks predom ate fo operat o s in co fi ed locat o a d wh re food stuffs might be co t m n ted by exha u f mes On open load ng platf rm and in ya ds inte nal comb ti n e g t es e empl yed for power g ndu t i l trucks

Pow ed no l ft platf rm trucks with straight and d p fame ha long bee stand rd handl g

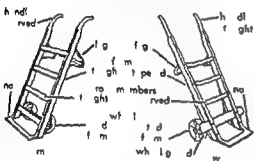


Fig 1 Two types of wheel trucks

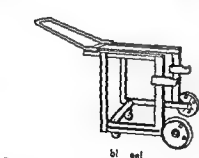
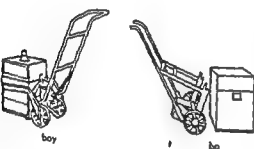


Fig 2 Low lift trucks



Fig 3 Power lift trucks

equipment Relatively new are personnel and burden carriers for transporting messengers watchmen mail blueprints as well as material between buildings and in plant areas covering considerable ground Shop trolleys are used extensively for miscellaneous towing jobs in plant and warehouses (Fig 3) An electrically controlled tractor was introduced recently it is directed by radio or by wires which are overhead or concealed in the floor

Unit load principle The unit load principle of material handling underlies the skid platform and the pallet forklift method of operation Both methods more especially the latter have revolutionized handling techniques handling equipment and equipment of equipment so that they too can accommodate unit loads

A unit load is not necessarily composed of articles which are trapped glued or otherwise unitized by means of binding material It can be made up of any assortment of articles which are accumulated and then handled with unit breaking blocks (Fig 4) Loads of this type were developed originally to be carried on skids or pallet but the trend is to make them up so that they can be handled by special devices which limit the need for any accessory supporting equipment The unit load principle has been extended as evidenced by the increasing use of larger containers and over-the-road truck and trailers which are treated as unit load a piggy back rail and marine hip-ping

Skids are constructed in three basic types (1) flat skids with fixed and swivel casters which are too lightly for the engineering purposes (2) emble skids with two fixed legs at the front and a pair of rigid casters at the rear and made movable by means of a jack and (3) dead skids having either two solid runners or four metal legs (Fig 5) All wooden dead skids and those made of hardwood platforms with metal edges and metal legs are convenient others are made of metal such as steel or aluminum and have special superstructure

Pallets differ from skids in that they are separated by two or more lengthwise members called stringers which in some constructions are placed by blocks The National Wooden Pallet Manufacturers Association has prepared and issued specifications for lumber pallets and other pallets impose its different construction are called by descriptive names (Fig 6) For example those with double wings to permit the use of long bars are the tedore type The two most commonly used sizes of pallets are 30 by 40 and 40 by 48 inches They can be carried and a large variety of other uses and applications and a box and a drag at the cars The U.S. Navy has standardized the latter

If a pallet is to be used with a low lift truck the bottom deckboard must be spaced that the rollers of the truck can dip to the floor when the pallet is being elevated Pallets so constructed are called non-reversible pallets (Fig 6)

mal and plant, is receiving increased attention and will probably equal or surpass production for human consumption and therapy as well as the production of industrial chemical. *S. C. DISTILLED PIPITS FERMENTATION ITACONIC ACID ITATAP TAPIC ACID KOJIC ACID MALT BEVERAGE PETROPLUM MICROBIOLOGY YEAST YEAST INDUSTRIAL* [R.H.H.]






*Bibliography S. C. Prescott and C. G. Dunn Industrial Microbiology 2d ed., 1949 L. A. Underkuffler and R. J. Hickey (ed.) Industrial Fermentation 1954*

## Industrial trucks

Manually propelled or powered carriers for transporting materials over level or slightly inclined or declined running surfaces. Some industrial trucks can lift and lower their loads and others can also tilt them. In any event all such trucks maintain contact with the running surface over which they operate and, except when towed by a chain conveyor, follow variable paths of travel as distinct from conveying machines or monorails (see MATERIALS HANDLING MACHINES).

**Running gear.** The means employed to support a truck and its load and to provide rolling friction or contact with the running surface is the running gear. Factors in the selection of running gear include load capacity, operating conditions, travel surface, kind of material to be handled, protection of load and machine, economy and, in the case of hand trucks, ease of manipulation and reduction of operator fatigue.

### Basic types of industrial hand trucks

Type	Description	Capacity	Range
 Pry	Long bars with long, wooden handles, short tool noses and two wheels at the fulcrum. Used only on pairs of ironing and light aggregates and similar heavy articles as in fire hydrants.	Up to 500 lb each	Very short distances
 Dolly	Light frame, especially adapted carriers mounted on rollers or casters. Used for moving furniture, milk cans, paper rolls and other intended uses.	From few pounds up to 50 lbs for the majority	A few feet
 Two-wheel truck	Normally constructed of wood and tool steel. Usually in aluminum and magnesium. Steady and low maintenance. General purpose but many special purpose types are available for other uses.	Generally 100 to 110 lbs for the majority up to 100 lb	Up to 100 ft
 Multi-wheel platform	Trucks with flat platform mounted on various combinations of 3 (until 4) wheels and axles. Loaders. Addition of tires and end gates and panels and accessories increase the versatility of these trucks.	Generally 100 to 2000 lbs for the majority	Weights and distances constant but normally within 100 ft
 Special	A wide variety of trucks with special protrusions and running gear for special purposes. For example, and built of metal frames for special use for metal parts and to be adapted to be truck test to be made and truck stores.	Same as the wheel platform	Same as the wheel platform

Rollers used in dollies are of solid or tubular steel, with antifriction bearings. Rigid and swivel casters are used with dollies and with hand and powered trucks. Swivels differ from rigid types in having offset wheels and special thrust and other bearings to facilitate turning. Steel solid rubber semipneumatic and other wheels fitted with plastic or antifriction bearing are designed to meet specific requirements. Industrial wheels for heavy duty and special automotive type wheels in a wide selection of tire treads are used with powered trucks and tractors.

**Hand trucks.** Many industrial trucks are hand propelled by pushing or pulling. Some can be attached to a chain conveyor. Others are trailer equipped with couplings and can be hauled singly or in trains as described below. Basic types and their distinctive features are shown in the table. Two-wheel hand trucks are classified broadly as eastern and western (Fig. 1). Multiwheel hand trucks are produced in many models but platform types continue to be the most widely used in industry and distribution. Stake ends and side gates, solid panels and other superstructures add versatility to the basic machines. Low lift types elevate their loads sufficiently to clear the running surface (Fig. 2).

**Powered trucks.** Development of compact, high capacity at rack batteries and small internal combustion engines made possible self-powered industrial trucks. They have been responsible for extending the scope and increasing the efficiency of materials handling operations. Sources of power include at rack batteries, lead acid and nickel-iron-alkali.



mal and plant is receiving increased attention and will probably equal or surpass production for human consumption and therapy as well as the production of industrial chemicals See DISTILLED SPIRITS FERMENTATION ITACONIC ACID ITATARIC ACID KOJIC ACID MALT BEVERAGE PETROLEUM MICROBIOLOGY YEAST YEAST INDUSTRIAL [R H II]

*Bibliography* S C Prescott and C G Dunn *Industrial Microbiology* 2d ed 1949 L A Underkoffler and R J Hickey (eds) *Industrial Fermentation* 1954

## Industrial trucks

Manually propelled or powered carriers for transporting materials over level or slightly inclined or declined running surfaces Some industrial trucks can lift and lower their loads and others can also tier them In any event all such trucks maintain contact with the running surface over which they operate and except when towed by a chain conveyor follow variable paths of travel as distinct from conveying machines or monorails (see MATERIALS HANDLING MACHINES)






**Running gear** The means employed to support a truck and its load and to provide rolling friction contact with the running surface is the running gear Factors in the selection of running gear include load capacity operating conditions travel surface kind of material to be handled protection of load and machine economy and in the case of hand trucks ease of manipulation and reduction of operator fatigue

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**Powered trucks** Development of compact high capacity storage batteries and small internal combustion engines made possible self powered industrial trucks They have been responsible for extending the scope and increasing the efficiency of materials handling operations Sources of power include storage batteries lead acid and nickel iron alkaline

Basic types of industrial hand trucks

Type	Description	Capacity	Range
Pry 	Lever bars with long wooden handles short steel noses and two wheels at the fulcrum Used singly or in pairs for moving and spotting crates and similar heavy articles as in freight cars	Up to 5000 lb each	Very short distances
Dolly 	Low platform or specially shaped carriers mounted on rollers or combinations of fixed and swivel casters Designed as furniture milk can paper roll and so on to indicate intended uses	From few pounds up to 80 tons for moving machinery	A few feet
2 Wheel truck 	Normally constructed of wood and steel but available in aluminum and magnesium Stevedore and warehouse models are general purpose but many special purpose types are available for egg crates drums or paper roll	Normally 100-500 lb but exceptional up to 1000 lb	Up to 150 ft
Multiwheel platform 	Trucks with flat platforms mounted on combinations of 3 (unstable) 4 or 6 rigid and swivel casters Additions of stakes side- and end-gates solid panels and similar accessories increase the versatility of these trucks	Normally 1500-5000 lb for one man operation	Weight is a limiting factor but normally within a few hundred feet
Special 	A wide variety of trucks with special structures and running gear Examples are box frames for spools and sheets of metal frames for plate glass shelves for small parts and tool shapes to accommodate various stock textile beams and stock items	Same as multiwheel platform	Same as multiwheel platform

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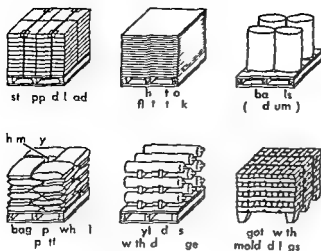


Fig 4 Loads assembled for handling in units



Fig 5 Skids for unit loads

Special pallets are those made of steel magnesium aluminum or even plastic expendable varieties (one way shippers) are made of fiberboard or light wooden elements in addition to the with custom made upper structures there are self support types for handling crushable loads.

Structural differences between skids (Fig 5) with considerable clearance underneath and pallets (Fig 6) with stringers and bottom boards present in all constructions account for the use of platforms with the former and of necessity fork equipped machines with the latter. The double deck feature of pallets makes them more suitable for multiple tiering than the runners or legs of skids which may damage the supporting surface of the lower load.

**Low and high lift trucks.** Skids and pallets are handled by self loading machines. These lift trucks pick up transport at down and in the case of the high lift type tier their loads without manual handling. Powered models evolved from prototype hand machines and because the first of the self propelled machines were led by the operator they were called walkies. The name persists even though most of them are now produced as rider trucks (Fig 7).

**Low lift truck.** hand and powered lift their loads sufficiently to make them mobile. The elevating mechanism of hand types may be operated by pulling the handle down once or several times. Others have a lever or pedal operated hydraulic mechanism or a powered hydraulic system. Gasoline and electric models are available.

Noncounterbalanced high lift trucks evolved from hand propelled tacker. Fork equipped types are known as outrigger or traddle trucks because of the transport which traddle the pallet. All varieties come with fixed or telescoping mast. The truck

are advantageous where space is at a premium. For example when piling vertically from aisles these machines operate in aisles 6 ft wide compared with 10 ft as is required by counterbalanced trucks of equal capacity. Because they have no counterweight these machines are lighter than the counterbalanced types and hence are a boon to handling operations in old multi-story buildings.

Counterbalanced lift trucks are constructed by extending the wheel base adding counterweight and removing the outriggers. They usually have forward and backward tilting masts. They are used where outriggers cannot function advantageously but they are longer than their noncounterbalanced counterparts.

**Forklift trucks.** Conventional fork trucks are made with any desired source of power the selection depending upon the service for which the truck is intended. Elevation of the forks forward and backward tilt of the mast and the power for actuating attachments is provided by the hydraulic system. This consists of a pump to draw oil from a reservoir and force it through control valves which are manipulated by hand levers selected by the machine operator into piston actuators.

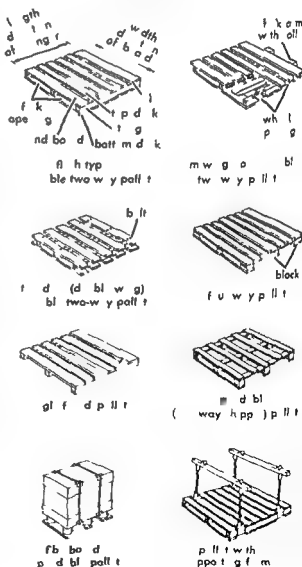


Fig 6 Standard industrial pallets

# Inertial guidance system

A self-contained vehicle navigation system for autonomous navigation of a vehicle. The system consists of a gyroscope, an accelerometer, and a computer. The gyroscope measures the vehicle's orientation relative to a fixed reference frame. The accelerometer measures the vehicle's acceleration. The computer processes the data from the sensors to determine the vehicle's position, velocity, and acceleration. The system is used in a variety of applications, including missile guidance, aircraft navigation, and submarine navigation.

Inertial guidance systems are automatically plotted relative to a ground reference and submarine. They provide a means of navigation for vehicles that are not equipped with external navigation aids. The system is based on the principle of conservation of momentum. The gyroscope measures the vehicle's orientation relative to a fixed reference frame. The accelerometer measures the vehicle's acceleration. The computer processes the data from the sensors to determine the vehicle's position, velocity, and acceleration.

Principles of operation: An inertial navigation system is a self-contained navigation system that does not rely on external references. It is based on the principle of conservation of momentum. The system consists of a gyroscope, an accelerometer, and a computer. The gyroscope measures the vehicle's orientation relative to a fixed reference frame. The accelerometer measures the vehicle's acceleration. The computer processes the data from the sensors to determine the vehicle's position, velocity, and acceleration.

A simple example is shown in Fig. 1. When a vehicle is moving in a straight line, the gyroscope measures the vehicle's orientation relative to a fixed reference frame. The accelerometer measures the vehicle's acceleration. The computer processes the data from the sensors to determine the vehicle's position, velocity, and acceleration.

Two important limitations of an inertial navigation system are its drift and its sensitivity to initial conditions. Drift is the accumulation of errors over time. Sensitivity to initial conditions means that small errors in the initial position, velocity, or acceleration can lead to large errors in the final position, velocity, or acceleration.

Figure 1 shows a simple example of an inertial navigation system. The vehicle is moving in a straight line. The gyroscope measures the vehicle's orientation relative to a fixed reference frame. The accelerometer measures the vehicle's acceleration. The computer processes the data from the sensors to determine the vehicle's position, velocity, and acceleration.

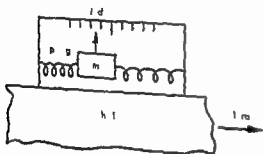


Fig. 1 Elementary inertial navigation system

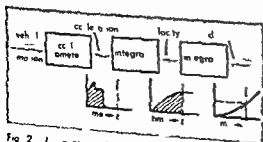


Fig. 2 Inertial navigation system block diagram and graphs

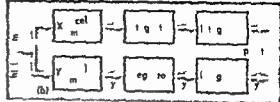
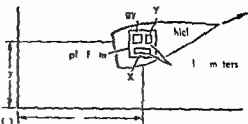


Fig. 3 Navigation platform stabilized by gyro

The platform is stabilized by a gyroscope. The gyroscope measures the platform's orientation relative to a fixed reference frame. The platform's acceleration is measured by an accelerometer. The platform's position is determined by integrating the acceleration data.

A platform stabilized by a gyroscope is used in a variety of applications, including missile guidance, aircraft navigation, and submarine navigation. The platform is stabilized by a gyroscope, which measures the platform's orientation relative to a fixed reference frame. The platform's acceleration is measured by an accelerometer. The platform's position is determined by integrating the acceleration data.

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Schuler pendulum: The Schuler pendulum is a device used to stabilize a platform. It consists of a pendulum that is suspended from a platform. The pendulum's natural frequency is equal to the frequency of the platform's motion. This allows the pendulum to counteract the platform's motion and stabilize it.

$$T = 2\pi\sqrt{L/g}$$

where  $L$  is the length of the pendulum and  $g$  is the acceleration due to gravity. The Schuler pendulum is used in a variety of applications, including missile guidance, aircraft navigation, and submarine navigation.

The Schuler pendulum is a device used to stabilize a platform. It consists of a pendulum that is suspended from a platform. The pendulum's natural frequency is equal to the frequency of the platform's motion. This allows the pendulum to counteract the platform's motion and stabilize it. The Schuler pendulum is used in a variety of applications, including missile guidance, aircraft navigation, and submarine navigation.



path established by the tractor) those with 4-wheel steer are rated as having excellent trailability but are difficult to maneuver manually and those with fifth wheel (wagon) steering are effective with heavy loads. They are offered in a wide variety of constructions which makes it possible to select one with proper characteristics to meet given requirements.

Each type of industrial truck is used to the best advantage when carrying the particular load for which it is intended. Several types may be found working singly or as teams. For example, palletized loads may be transported on tractor-trailer trains and then distributed and tiered by forklift trucks.

[D 0 11]

**Bibliography** Caster and Floor Truck Manufacturers Association *Engineering and Purchasing Planbook* 1959. Industrial Truck Association *Handbook of Powered Industrial Trucks* 1957. National Wooden Pallet Manufacturers Association *Technical Handbook on Pallets and Palletization* 1954.

## Inert gases

The inert gases listed in the table constitute group 0 of the periodic table of the elements. They are also called the noble or the rare gases although argon is not actually rare and helium is not rare in the United States.

All these gases occur to some extent in the earth's atmosphere but the concentrations of all but argon are exceedingly low. Argon is plentiful, constituting almost 1% of the air.

All isotopes of radon are radioactive; the longest lived having a half life of about 4 days. Each of the other inert gases has at least two stable (nonradioactive) isotopes in addition to one or more radioactive isotopes.

All the gases are colorless, odorless, and tasteless. They are all slightly soluble in water, the solubility increasing with increasing molecular weight. They can be liquefied at low temperatures, the boiling point being proportional to the atomic weight. All but helium can be solidified by reducing the temperature sufficiently, and helium can be solidified at about 1 K by applying an external pressure of 25 atm or more.

The atoms of the inert gases are characterized by the fact that in each of them the outer shell of electrons is filled. Therefore, none of the elements forms chemical compounds in the ordinary sense of the word, although they do form some weakly bonded clathrates and a few unstable diatomic

molecules and ions. Under ordinary conditions, molecules of the inert gases are monatomic.

All the inert gases except helium and radon are produced in concentrated form by the liquefaction and distillation of air, followed by special purification processes. Helium is obtained from certain natural gases containing 1% or more helium. Radon is obtained by collecting the gas called radium emanation given off in the radioactive decay of radium. See ARGON, ATMOSPHERIC GASES, PRODUCTION OF HELIUM, KRYPTON, NEON, PERIODIC TABLE, RADIOX, XENON. [C 11]

## Inertia

That property of matter which manifests itself as resistance to any change in the motion of a body. Thus, when no external force is acting, a body at rest remains at rest and a body in motion continues moving in a straight line with a uniform speed (Newton's first law of motion). The mass of a body is a measure of its inertia. See MASS. [L 11]

## Inertia of energy

The principle of inertia of energy states that the inertial properties of matter determine and are determined by its total energy content. If  $E$  is the total energy content and  $m_0$  the rest mass of a piece of matter,  $c$  being the speed of light, the mass-energy relation is  $E = mc^2$ . This formula was proposed on general grounds by H. Poincaré in 1900 and was deduced from the special theory of relativity by Albert Einstein in 1905.

If the mass of a body changes by an amount  $\Delta m$ , the corresponding energy change is  $\Delta E = c^2 \Delta m$ . The existence of disintegration processes in atomic nuclei has made it possible to test this formula with great accuracy. Energy released from nuclear reactions provides the power source in nuclear reactors as well as the principal energy source in the sun and other stars. The radiation emitted from the sun is equivalent to a loss of mass of about 4,000,000 tons/sec.

The statement that the rest mass of matter is determined by its total energy content is not a superficial or a simple test since there exists no independent measure of the latter quantity. The validity of the general principle was adopted by Einstein as a cornerstone of his theory of gravitation. According to this theory, the gravitational properties of matter are determined by the distribution of energy in the universe. Matter and energy are used as interchangeable terms, all forms of energy being subject to gravitational action. Physical predictions made by Einstein on the basis of this principle are: (1) light passing near a star should be deflected by the gravitational field of the star and (2) light emitted from a massive star should lose energy in escaping from the star and consequently should appear to be slightly reddened with respect to a terrestrial source (gravitational red shift). Both the effects have been subjected repeatedly to physical tests, results favoring Einstein's predictions. See EINSTEIN, SHIFT, MASS, RELATIVITY. [F 1111]

The inert gases

Name	Symbol	Atomic number	Atomic weight
Helium	He		4.003
Neon	Ne	10	20.183
Argon	Ar	18	39.948
Krypton	Kr	36	83.80
Xenon	Xe	54	131.30
Radon	Rn	86	222

## Infant diarrhea

A mpr t t ymptom p rp cely d u d s a  
a ut pec d a n med l lter ture Babi  
c mm ly exhibit d r h b t e n fud nd  
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cot l f these l es with pla eme t wh l th  
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Th e e v d t t r u s a l o a u a t a d  
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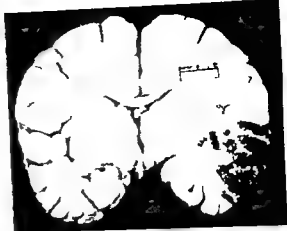


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th f c d t (I)

## Infarction

A p r s f l a r b t c t e l t g a  
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t t n the l l t a l e l t n l f the a t o  
m t u e b l o o d p p l y i d q u t f t h e l  
th l u r c f b l o d p p l y t h r e g n  
i f c t r e s l t  
F l l w g a t a l p r o d f h y p e m the  
i f r t d g b e c m e p a l e B a e f t h e  
b h g g m e t f t h e l y i m  
f t f t h e p l e k d y d l g r e l l y  
w e d g h p d w t h t h b f t h w d g t h e  
p e p h y r a d t h e p e x t w d t h e p o i n t f a s  
l b t r u t S E B O L L S T H R O M B O S  
W i t h o c l f a n a r t e r y t h t g c o l l a t  
r l l t w l l t m p t t b r i g m b l o o d  
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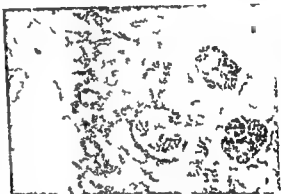


Fig 3 l w p w w i t h d g f l f c t  
Th m t f g l m l d t h g h t f t h  
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g (I) O t h l f t l l t l y b t t p e  
r v d g l m r u l d t b l l b A  
f f i m m t r y l l (C) p t g t h d d  
d l t l y b t t p r v d t



Fig 1 M g f i d g r o p h t o g p h f w d g e  
s h p e d f r c t f t h k d y (I) Th l r t (C)  
m e d l l r y p y m i d (M) d l p l (P) b  
l l y s e

th k d y n d h e r t e p l e w h e t h o e f t h e  
p l d l n g u l l y r d W i t h d e t h f t h e  
t u s t h e g d d l t t n f t h n e a r b y  
l a d a r y h m r r h a g m y o c c u r  
Th t t h f l e c t e d e a u d r g e a g  
l t e c o d d e s Th t t d t h t  
f c t e d g b m t f l a m e d S o o n f i b o b l t  
t t y d g n i z a t n b g E t a l l y t h e  
d a d t r p l d b y b r u k d e p e s e d

I f r t c m m l y o u r m t h e l g b r t  
l r s p l e n d k d y The m m n c a e f  
f t f t h e h r t s t h o m b o o f t h c o n r y  
t r y s a l l y s e c d r y t r e r i s e l e r  
I f r t f p r t f b w l w l e s l t m  
d t h f t h d d l n l s g c l t r v n t n  
s f t h m g A s m g h t b a m e d b e c a s e f  
t h f q y f t h m b t h e i d r i g h t m

The curved earth Schuler tuned system (Fig 4) produces accurate navigation for trips lasting many hours or days while the flat system (Fig 3) becomes inaccurate in a short time.

**Navigation errors** Suppose for example that an accelerometer is in error by a constant value of one ten thousandth of  $g$  so that  $\epsilon = 0.00322$  ft/sec<sup>2</sup>. In Fig 3 the integrators turn continuously and the distance error grows as  $ct^2/2$  so that after 1 hour the error (Fig 5a) is 4 miles and after 2 hours it is 16 miles. In Fig 4 the output of the integrator begins immediately to tilt the platform in a corrective direction and the final platform motion is an oscillation (Fig 5a) about a position one tenth of a milliradian ( $0.06^\circ$ ) from the true vertical with a resulting distance error between 0 and 0.8 mile after any length of time.

A drifting gyroscope tilts the stable platform at a constant rate and produces an error (Fig 5b) growing as  $t^3$  for flat navigation (Fig 3) but growing only as  $t$  (on the average) for the Schuler tuned system (Fig 4). Thus after 1 hour a gyro drift of  $1^\circ$ /day (one ten thousandth of the earth's rate of spin) produces errors of 20 miles for flat

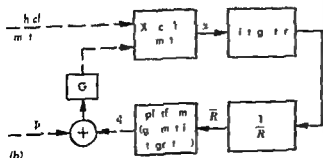
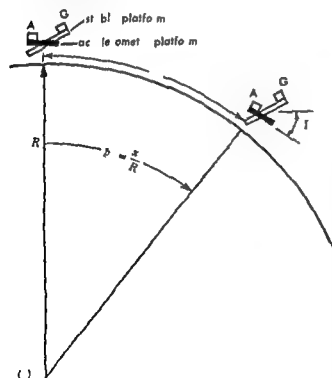


Fig 4 Schuler tuned system (a) Geometry on sphere (b) Computer configuration

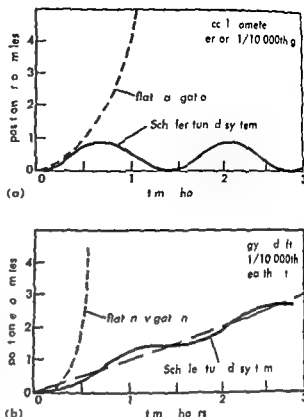


Fig 5 Inertial navigation errors arising from (a) accelerometer error (b) gyro drift

navigation but only 1 mile for the Schuler tuned system. For long term navigation the statistical character of gyro drift actually leads to a position error growing approximately as the square root of  $t$ .

Errors in the navigation computer produce additional positional errors. Computer errors arise out of the complexities of unscrambling the mathematics of acceleration in spherical coordinates on a rotating earth and of accounting for the earth's slight nonsphericity and other geodetic and gravitational variations. See EARTH GEODESY.

Initial misalignment also produces an 84-min oscillation. Alignment may be performed optically using a known reference or by the gyrocompassing technique whereby the system is allowed to seek gravity (leveling) and the direction of the earth's spin axis.

**Aided inertial systems** When means are available the accuracy of an inertial system may be improved in two ways: (1) by check point corrections and (2) by auxiliary velocity direction.

Check points may be introduced by discrete resetting or continuous monitoring using radio radar or automatic star tracking equipment.

Independent velocity data may be obtained from pitot tubes or Doppler radar and serve to damp the 84-min oscillation. This method requires caution, however, because errors in velocity data produce navigation errors.

[RHC]

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# Infant diarrhea

An mp rta t ympt m pu p sely d e d as n  
ute pecifi d ea n m d al lit rat r Bab e  
comm ly e h b t d hea b t ext i e flu d a d  
blood chemic ll s an be fat l Tr tment t s  
o tr l f these l s w th repla m nt wh le the  
e f the d a he s m ht Stool a num r  
u o w tery g e a d c ta muc s Blo d  
pu ug g ta pecifi t rit u h s bat rial o  
ameb dy ent ry D rrhe f t n d e tes i f c t n  
The i e v d n e t l a t i a l m at m d  
th t r m l n test l bact ria can bec m patho-  
g e d e prod ing u d e r t n ond  
u Othe r a s c l d f d e n t i t y o  
ll rgy and food p i n g uch by nt m  
ated mlk Epdem d a h a f i th n wbor  
the d c p t e term f r m t i n th  
m lady wh t wid pead h p t a l n r e e  
S e AMEBI S S BACILLARY DYSE TERY BACTERI  
OLOGY MEDICAL FOOD POISO I B BACTERIAL VIR  
ULE C VIRUS [PLB]

# Infarction

A proc s f cul obstruct r sults g m  
rego f ec i ll d a n f t Th ul  
l on f r t y o b a th m  
b s m bolus th d lopme t d pend t agr t  
exte t on th ll te l e c l t n l l th sto-  
m t blood pply i a d q t i f the es l  
the f s of blood pply t the go  
f t e l t  
F ll w g t l p rod f hype m i th  
i fa ted reg n bec m s pale Bec ue of th  
b a h g a ng m t of the ula y tem  
f t of th pl k d ey and l g a e u lly  
edge h ped w th th b f i h w dge at l i  
p phery d the apex t w rd th p nt f  
l b t i S E t b o l l s Thro s i o s i s  
With l m f n t y th e s i g l l t  
e al r l a t n w ll attempt to b ng m b l d  
t th reg n Dep nd ng n th t i f t i s p  
ea the f r i d ea w ll be d p l e Th  
p o c e s s w th th g l e d Th f



Fig 1 M g f i d g ph tog ph f w dge-  
h ped l f r c t f th k d ey (I) Th f r t (C)  
med l l r y p y m d (U) d l pol (P) m  
le ly se



Fig 2 G ph tog ph f i f b n h w  
ig w dge h p d f c t Th s l t e d f m  
th mb f the b l of th m d d l e e-  
b f i r r y S e d r y h m h g e h c d i t  
the f c t d t (I)



Fig 3 l w p w e w f the dg f i f c t  
Th m t f g l m l d th gh t f th  
d d l i b f s t l l b th f c t d  
g (I) O th l f r f i t l y b n p e-  
r v d g l m l d i b u l l b A z e  
f f m m t r y l l (C) p a t i g th d d  
d l i l y b n m r v d t

th k d ey a d h t e pal wh eas tho e of the  
ple a d l re u ally ed W th d th of th  
t u m th on nd d i t a t i n of the ne by  
el a sec d y h mor h g may o c r  
The t sue in the flect d ea u d r g m g  
l t o a d d s Th t i s ou d the m  
f c t e d r g i o b m s f l a m e d So n f i b l a t  
a t i y a d g a n z a t o b g E e t l l y th  
d d t u e i e p l e d by sh a n k e d p r e d  
r  
f i f t m m n l y c u o th l m heart  
b s p l e n a d k d n e y The c m m u e of  
i f a t s f i h h r t t h r m b o s f i h o n a r y  
r t r y u ally se d r y t a t s c l e s  
f i f i n i a p r t o f b o w l w ll result n  
d a th f i h d i d a l u l e s u r g a l t e r e n t n  
f r m g A s m i g h t b a s u m e d b e c a o f  
the f q n y o f th m b i th a d i g t u

ricle embolization to the lungs is a rather frequent occurrence. However because of the collateral blood supply of the lungs infarction follows only when there is some interference with the circulation such as chronic pulmonary venous congestion. An extensive collateral circulation also exists in the liver hence the rarity of infarcts in this organ. See CIRCULATION DISORDERS.

[R A V]

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## Infection

A term considered by some to mean the entrance, growth and multiplication of a microorganism (pathogen) in the body of a host resulting in the establishment of a disease process. Others define infection as the presence of microorganisms in host tissues whether or not it evolves into detectable pathologic effects. The host may be a bacterium, plant, animal or human being and the infecting agent may be viral, rickettsial, bacterial, fungal or protozoan.

A differentiation is made between infection and infestation. Infestation is the invasion of a host by higher organisms such as parasitic worms. See BACTERIOLOGY MEDICAL; EPIDEMIOLOGY; INFECTIOUS LYTIC; MYCOLOGY; MEDICAL PARASITOLOGY; MEDICAL PATHOGEN; VIRUS. [D N L]

## Infection lytic

Infection of a bacterium by a bacteriophage with subsequent production of more phage particles and lysis or dissolution of the cell. The viruses responsible are commonly called virulent phages. Lytic infection is one of the two major bacteriophage-bacterium relationships, the other being lysogenic infection. See BACTERIA; LYSOGENIC; BACTERIOPHAGE; COLIPHAGE. [P B C]

## Infectious disease control

Since infection depends on factors in the host, the parasite and the environment, there are various means by which infectious diseases can be controlled. Immunization strengthens the defenses of the host; chemoprophylaxis is directed at the parasite; and quarantine and sanitary measures remove the parasite from the environment of susceptible people.

Immunization has been successful in controlling smallpox, diphtheria, tetanus and whooping cough and offers great promise in poliomyelitis. It protects the individuals immunized and when the number so protected has reached a high enough level it may prevent the outbreak of an epidemic. Chemotherapy is now used successfully in the treatment

of many infectious diseases and is therefore effective in controlling the secondary spread of the diseases. Chemoprophylaxis acts at an earlier stage; it may be defined as the use of drugs to prevent the development of infectious diseases. Persons exposed to tuberculosis for instance may take isoniazid with the objective of preventing the tubercle bacilli from becoming established.

Quarantine may be defined as such a limitation of freedom of movement of persons who have been exposed to a communicable disease that for a period of time equal to the incubation period of the disease they are unable to make effective contact with persons who have not been exposed. The term may also be used for less extreme degrees of isolation. Quarantine has been effective in countries such as Australia which are distant from other centers of population so that people arriving by sea will have had opportunity to develop during the voyage any infectious disease they may be incubating. Examination at the quarantine port will then be effective. Quarantine is likely to be less useful as air travel becomes more common.

The basic importance of sanitary measures in the control of infectious diseases is due to the fact that certain microorganisms that infect man are excreted in the feces by patients or carriers. If sewage disposal is inadequate, contamination of the water supply is likely. Preventive measures are concentrated both on the safe disposal of sewage and on the provision of clean water. The diseases that may be controlled by these measures include typhoid fever, dysentery, hookworm and infectious hepatitis. See EPIDEMIOLOGY. [C W I]

## Infectious disease transmission

The transmission of infectious diseases is accomplished in several ways.

1 There may be direct contact with an infected person. The venereal diseases are almost invariably and measles is commonly spread in this way. See GONORRHOEA; LYMPHOGRANULOMA VENEREUM; MEASLES; YAWS.

2 Certain diseases are spread by direct contact from lower animals to man, an example being undulant fever which may be transmitted directly from cattle, goats or swine (see BRUCELLOSIS). Animal ringworm is another disease in this class. See ZOONOSSES.

3 Milk-borne infectious diseases include typhoid fever, scarlet fever, summer diarrhoea and bovine tuberculosis. The cow infects the milk with bovine tubercle bacilli but in the other diseases listed the infection is from human source. The milk responsible is almost always raw in the preparation properly carried out can be relied on to kill pathogenic microorganisms. See MILK; SCARLET FEVER; TUBERCULOSIS; TYPHOID FEVER.

4 In the past there have been many epidemics of water-borne diseases. They include epidemic typhoid fever, shigellosis, dysentery and amebic dysentery. Although the elimination of the infective agent is almost immediate

th wat upplies f s ge mmunit e i many  
 pat of the w ld S e WATER BORNE DISEASE.  
 5 Ga r e te su d e t th *Salmo lla* group  
 f rgan ms s a food borne d e a e m certain  
 sta ces P rk and po lity are p r t ul rly lable  
 t b o t m ated and duck egg ha e been n  
 c m t d on e aloc as Am b d s nt ry  
 m be t a smited by o t m n ted eget ble  
 S e SALMONELLA

6 A m l i f e c t o s n that s p e d  
 n hospitals An u ge t p blem t th p e s e n t m e  
 the p r a d f s t phyllococci many f th m an t  
 l i t e s t t i h o s p i t a l s e STAPHYLOCOCCUS

7 A r t l s wh h becom o t m i ated by n  
 t t with a p t n t are kn wn a s mites and the e  
 t t u r n m y c b f m t e b o r n n i e t n Am g  
 h l d e there s e d e r a b l e t r a f f i c n l by  
 m a o f t o y s t h e r t m n a t e d o b j e c t s wh h  
 e r v m e n a f n d r t n t e t b e t w e n a a e  
 and a u c p t i b l e s o i l e d t h i n g b e d d g n d  
 d e m D e e s t r m i t t e d n t h y m e l u d  
 t e p t o c c l f e c t i o n s n d d p h t r a S D I P H  
 T H E R I A S T R E o c c t s

8 I n s e c t v e t e h m t i m p o t t m e n  
 s p e a d g e r t a d e a h a y e l l w f e v e  
 l e e p n g k n e s p l a g u n d t y p h u T i m e t  
 l e d a e r e s p t e l y m q u i t o o s t e t e f l u e  
 f e a n d l e T h e s i t a n f e c t e d b u t t h e  
 h e f f y m a y a u e d a b y c n a p a s i e  
 e e f g r m a q u e d f r m n f c t e d m a t i l  
 h f e c e s P c u e S l r y c s i c k n e s  
 A F R I C A T Y P H I L F E V E R E D E M I C ( F L E A B O R N E )  
 T Y P H I L F E R e f e r e n c e ( L O U I S I O N E )

Host parasite relationship The t a m s o f  
 d m a l o b a t i d i e d a s a p o b l m i b o r t  
 p a a i t e l t n h p T h e a d y n a m i c b a l a c e  
 b e t w e e n t h e f l o r t f h p a a i t m l p l y a n d  
 t h d f e f i t h h t a g t i n s e c t E n v i r o  
 m n i a l f a t e r u h t e m p a t u r n d h m d t y  
 m f l u t h m l b r m b e t w e e n t h e t w o p r o t  
 t g n t t h f r t h e e e t s o f a c t o c i e n t e d  
 r e e p t l y w i t h t h e s a r t t h h t d t h  
 r n m t m d e o d

B t l p o l s T h e t e r e i l p o p u l i s n  
 t h r m i r p a m p o p u l a s m y b f a l y  
 t t t b l g l e f f e r t s n t h e h t T h  
 r f m l e a n t h i s t g r v T h e v r u e f  
 n f s z a h w n m l e d n a t n  
 t h y h b t l a g m i r f i t a n w h a r y  
 t h t t e d t h e f f e c t s a t l e h t d  
 h h p t e c t m n n f s z a g i  
 d m m b e l y p r t l y p o t t e o n t a t  
 l l r t e c t n n t h T i r u f A z i f  
 n z a f m p l w u n l k a y t h t h a d b  
 n u t l e r t e a t h o u g h t w a m  
 d n t h t l d p e o p l p o e d a s t b o d e s  
 h t i d t e d t h d e n a t e d t h e m r u  
 p e r i l

F r h t p p i r n T h e g e n f n  
 p i m d p e d l f t n t h h s p p  
 f l T h g d t b t m p o r t a t b e e u  
 m n y m o o g n m a e l e c t m e a g e  
 e u p t h y n l k m g o c o c a l m e g i s s

m e l i k e l y t a t t a c k y o u n g e r a g e g o u p a n d  
 t h e h a v e t h e f o r e b e e n e v e r a l e p i d e m i c s n a r m y  
 c a m p s i n w h c h n u m e r o u y o u n g r e c r t s w e r e l i  
 i g T h e f a c t m f c r o w d i n g i s a l o i m p o r t a n t i n  
 t h i s c a c e d i s i n f l u e n c e m a y b e s e e n g a i n i n  
 t h e h i g h r a t f o r c e r t a i n d e a e i n s l u m o v e r  
 e r w d e d j a l a n d m e n t a l h p i t a l

E t r m e n t a l f a c t N u m e r o u s e n i r m e n t a l  
 f a t r a c t n b t h t h b a c t e r i a l p e p l a t o n a n d  
 t h e h t p u l a t i o n P r o n f c l a n w i t r a n d  
 p o p e w a g e d p s i h e f e n t h e c h f a t o r  
 l e d i n g t o a e d c t i n f e t e n t i d e a m  
 m a y c m m u n i s A r e s u l t o f o c l e s s a n i t a r y  
 r e f o r m t y p h o d f e r i s n o w i t a l l u n k n o w n i n  
 m o d e r n c u t e

H e d i m m u r y W h n a h o t i s i n f e c t e d h e m a y  
 r a c t a c c f l y t o t h e p a r t e n d n d n g  
 p r o d u c a n t b o d e t h t n k e h m i m m u n f r m e  
 t m e f r m f r i t h e a t t a c k f t h e p a r a s i t e A w e l l  
 a c n s d n g t h i m m u n i t y o f t h e s e c o n d u a l o n e  
 m a y a l o s t u d y h r d i m m u n i t y t h a t t h e i m m u  
 n i t y s t a t u s o f t h p p u l a t i o n s w h l e I f t h e m  
 m u n i t y a q u i r e d t o a p a r t c u l a r p a r a s i t e i l t n  
 t h s e c e p t i b l e s w l l t e d t o b e c n e a t r a t e d i n t h e  
 y o u n g e r a g e g r o u p s d n e p d m i w i l l m o s t l y i n  
 v l e t h s e c i o n f t h e p p u l a t i o n T h e m m o n  
 l i d h o o d f e t u n u e l a m s l e m d c h k n  
 p r i l l s t r a t t h p o i n t O n t h e o t h e r h a n d t h e  
 i m m u n i t y n f s e z a s h t l e d a n d t h i d i a  
 a t t a k s a l l a g g u p s

T h e s h o l d d u y I f t h p r o p r t o f u p l  
 b l e s b e l w c r t a r t c a l v a l u e k n o w n a s t h  
 t h r e s h o l d d n t y a n i s e c t n t r d u e d i n t h  
 g r o u p w l l d u t T h s t a n i m p o r t a n t f a t o r m  
 t h e c y c l a l l e h a t r e p i d e m i c D u r i n g t h m  
 d e m c p o d t h e d e t o f s e c e p t i b l e s m d u a l l  
 m e a s s a d t h e n d i t s b e c m a p p r i a t e  
 f a f u r t h e r o u t b r e a k

Nonhuman hosts S o f r t h h t u d r o n  
 i d e t n h a b e n t h e h u m a n b u t t h e r e a e h a t  
 o t h e r t h n m n w h c h m a y u n d e n a t u r a l o n d  
 t o s h b o r a n n f e t i s a g e n t p t h n f o r  
 m a A n e p d m i o f p l a g u e m m s a l w a y p r e  
 d e d b y a o r t e p d n g o u t b r e a k n t h c e p t  
 E l d e t n d e n t h a f f e c t i o n r a t e b e c o m  
 h g h i t h s h t t l e d s e a s p i l l s o e r t m a  
 S E e i t u t o l o g y [ c w i t ]

### Infectious mononucleosis

A d a e f h l d a d p r t c l a r l y o f y o g  
 d u l t h a s e n e d b y f e e a n d e l a r g e d l y m p h  
 o d t

T h e a g n t p r e m d b u t n o t p o e n t h e  
 v l l a r v i d c e o f x p r m e t l t r n m i o n  
 b a n t b e e n h t n e d

O t e o f t d e a I w a d n o s p e c i f i c w i t h  
 v a i b l e f e r a n d m a l e l a t e c e r t i c a l l y m p h  
 u d s n l a g n d i a b o u t 50% o f c a e t h  
 p l e l b e c m e l r g e d T h d i e s l a s t s  
 4 - 6 d y s o l n g m E p d e m e o m m o n n  
 i n t i t w h r y o g p e p l e

F a d g a t h h t p h l e a t b o d y t t  
 u f l T h t t b a s e d o n s p e f i c e r o l g

reaction present at high levels in patients with infectious mononucleosis. Total white blood cell count and differential blood count are also useful in diagnosis. See HETEROPHILE ANTIGEN [J L M]

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## Infective dose 50

An important special case of the median effective dose is the dose of microorganisms required to cause infection in 50% of the experimental animals. This is known as the infective dose 50 ID<sub>50</sub> or the median infective dose. In former times it was the practice to try to measure the least amount of infective agent that was needed to produce a definite infection but this proved to be a very variable quantity. The median infective dose is a much more reproducible measure though it is still necessary to specify in detail certain conditions to be observed during the measurement of this quantity. For example the median infective dose varies widely according to the route of administration: a dose that is ineffective by mouth may cause a high rate of infection when given intravenously. See EFFECTIVE DOSE 50 [C W H]

## Infinity

The terms infinity and infinite have a variety of related meanings in mathematics. The adjective infinite means having an end, so infinity may be used to refer to something having no end. To be more precise the mathematical domain of discourse must be limited.

**Infinity in sets** A simple and basic example of an infinite collection is the class of natural numbers or positive integers. A fundamental property of the positive integers is that after each integer there follows a next one so that there is no last integer. Now it is necessary in mathematics to treat the collection of all positive integers as an entity and this entity is the simplest infinity or infinite collection.

Suppose that two collections  $A$  and  $B$  of objects can be set into one to one correspondence: that is each object in  $A$  is paired with one and only one object in  $B$  and each object in  $B$  belongs to just one of these pairs. Then  $A$  and  $B$  are said to contain the same number of objects or have the same cardinal number. This is equivalent to the ordinary meaning of the same number obtained by counting when the collections  $A$  and  $B$  are finite and is taken as the definition of this phrase in the general case.

Now let  $A$  consist of all the positive integers and let  $B$  consist of the even integers. Then  $A$  and  $B$  have the same number of elements since each element of  $A$  can be paired with its double in  $B$ ; thus element can be removed from an infinite collection without reducing the number of its elements. This property distinguishes infinite collections from finite ones and indicates that the statement the number of elements of a collection  $A$  is greater

than the number of elements of a collection  $B$  should be taken to mean  $B$  can be put into one to one correspondence with part of  $A$  but not with the whole of  $A$ .

Consider next the number of subsets of a given collection  $A$ . For example let  $A = \{a, b, c\}$  that is  $A$  consists of the three letters  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ . Then the sets  $\{a\}$ ,  $\{b\}$ ,  $\{c\}$ ,  $\{a, b\}$ ,  $\{a, c\}$ ,  $\{b, c\}$  are subsets of  $A$ . To the  $c$  for convenience can be adjoined the null set containing no elements and the set  $A$  itself. This makes a total of  $8 = 2^3$  subsets. It is readily proved that a set  $A$  having a finite number  $n$  of elements has  $2^n$  subsets. Thus the number of subsets of a finite set is always greater than the number of elements. By a different method the same property may be proved to hold also for infinite sets. Hence for every infinite number there is a greater number. In other words there exist infinitely many distinct infinities. Sets having the same number of elements as the collection of positive integers are called countably infinite and this is the smallest infinity.

**Infinity in limits of functions** The term infinity appears in mathematics in a different sense in connection with limits of functions. For example consider the function defined by  $y = 1/x$ . When  $x$  tends to 0,  $y$  approaches infinity and the expression may be written

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} y = \infty$$

Precisely this means that for an arbitrary number  $a > 0$  there exists a number  $b > 0$  such that when  $0 < x < b$  then  $y > a$  and when  $-b < x < 0$  then  $y < -a$ . This example indicates that it is sometimes useful to distinguish  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty$ . The points  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty$  are pictured at the two ends of the  $y$  axis: a line which has no ends in the proper sense in euclidean geometry.

**Infinity in geometry** In geometry of two or more dimensions it is sometimes said that two parallel lines meet at infinity. This leads to the conception of just one point at infinity on each set of parallel lines and of a line at infinity on each set of parallel planes. With such agreement parts of euclidean geometry can be discussed in the term of projective geometry. For example one may speak of the asymptotes of a hyperbola as being tangent to the curve at infinity. Note that the points at infinity which are adjoined to a euclidean line or plane are chosen in a manner dictated by convenience for the theory being discussed. Thus only one point at infinity is adjoined to the complex plane used for geometric representation in connection with the theory of functions of a complex variable.

**Other concepts** Other types of infinity may be distinguished when properties other than the mere cardinal number of a set are being considered. For example a line and a plane contain the same number of points but when a continuity consideration is important the line is said to be made up of a single infinity of points whereas the plane has a double infinity or  $\omega^2$  points. This is because there exist a one-to-one continuous correspondence be





reaction present at high levels in patients with infectious mononucleosis. Total white blood cell count and differential blood count are also useful in diagnosis. See HETROPHIL ANTIGEN [J. L. M.]

*Bibliography* T. M. Rivers and F. L. Horsfall Jr (eds) *Viral and Rickettsial Infections of Man* 3d ed. 1959

## Infective dose 50

An important special case of the median effective dose is the dose of microorganisms required to cause infection in 50% of the experimental animals. This is known as the infective dose 50 ID<sub>50</sub> or the median infective dose. In former times it was the practice to try to measure the least amount of infective agent that was needed to produce a definite infection but this proved to be a very variable quantity. The median infective dose is a much more reproducible measure though it is still necessary to specify in detail certain conditions to be observed during the measurement of this quantity. For example the median infective dose varies widely according to the route of administration a dose that is ineffective by mouth may cause a high rate of infection when given intravenously. See EFFECTIVE DOSE 50 [C. W. H.]

## Infinity

The terms infinity and infinite have a variety of related meanings in mathematics. The adjective finite means having an end so infinity may be used to refer to something having no end. To be more precise the mathematical domain of discourse must be limited.

**Infinity in sets.** A simple and basic example of an infinite collection is the class of natural numbers or positive integers. A fundamental property of the positive integers is that after each integer there follows a next one so that there is no last integer. Now it is necessary in mathematics to treat the collection of all positive integers as an entity and this entity is the simplest infinity or infinite collection.

Suppose that two collections  $A$  and  $B$  of objects can be set into one-to-one correspondence that is each object in  $A$  is paired with one and only one object in  $B$  and each object in  $B$  belongs to just one of these pairs. Then  $A$  and  $B$  are said to contain the same number of objects or have the same cardinal number. This is equivalent to the ordinary meaning of the same number obtained by counting when the collection  $A$  and  $B$  are finite and is taken as the definition of this phrase in the general case.

Now let  $A$  consist of all the positive integers and let  $B$  consist of the even integers. Then  $A$  and  $B$  have the same number of elements since each element of  $A$  can be paired with its double in  $B$ ; thus each element of  $A$  can be removed from an infinite collection without reducing the number of its elements. This property distinguishes infinite collections from finite ones and indicates that the statement that the number of elements of a collection  $A$  is greater

than the number of elements of a collection  $B$  should be taken to mean  $B$  can be put into one-to-one correspondence with part of  $A$  but not with the whole of  $A$ .

Consider next the number of subsets of a given collection  $A$ . For example let  $A = \{a, b, c\}$  that is  $A$  consists of the three letters  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ . Then the sets  $\{a\}$ ,  $\{b\}$ ,  $\{c\}$ ,  $\{a, b\}$ ,  $\{a, c\}$ ,  $\{b, c\}$  are subsets of  $A$ . To these for convenience can be adjoined the null set containing no elements and the set  $A$  itself. This makes a total of  $8 = 2^3$  subsets. It is readily proved that a set  $A$  having a finite number  $n$  of elements has  $2^n$  subsets. Thus the number of subsets of a finite set is always greater than the number of elements. By a different method the same property may be proved to hold also for infinite sets. Hence for every infinite number there is a greater number. In other words there exist infinitely many distinct infinities. Sets having the same number of elements as the collection of positive integers are called countably infinite and this is the smallest infinity.

**Infinity in limits of functions.** The term infinity appears in mathematics in a different sense in connection with limits of functions. For example consider the function defined by  $y = 1/x$ . When  $x$  tends to 0  $y$  approaches infinity and the expression may be written

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} y = \infty$$

Precisely this means that for an arbitrary number  $a > 0$  there exists a number  $b > 0$  such that when  $0 < x < b$  then  $y > a$  and when  $-b < x < 0$  then  $y < -a$ . This example indicates that it is sometimes useful to distinguish  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty$ . The points  $+\infty$  and  $-\infty$  are pictured at the two ends of the  $y$ -axis a line which has no ends in the proper sense in euclidean geometry.

**Infinity in geometry.** In geometry of two or more dimensions it is sometimes said that two parallel lines meet at infinity. This leads to the conception of just one point at infinity on each set of parallel lines and of a line at infinity on each set of parallel planes. With such agreements part of euclidean geometry can be discussed in the terms of projective geometry. For example one may speak of the asymptotes of a hyperbola as being tangent to the curve at infinity. Note that the point at infinity which are adjoined to a euclidean line or plane are chosen in a manner dictated by convenience for the theory being studied. Thus only one point at infinity is adjoined to the complex plane used for geometric representation in complex function theory of functions of a complex variable.

**Other concepts.** Other types of infinity may be distinguished when properties other than the mere cardinal number of a set are being considered. For example a line and a plane attain the same number of points but when continuity and orientation are important the line is said to be made up of a single infinity of points whereas the plane has a double infinity or a point at infinity in each direction. It is a one-to-one correspondence between the



subcutaneous tissue. The inflammatory process extends to neighboring compartments and acts as if there were multiple adjacent abscesses. Abscesses located deep under a surface may continue to expand and destroy much of the organ.

**Cellulitis.** With some bacterial agents particularly streptococci there is no appreciable walling off of the original lesion and the infectious agent dissects along tissue planes. This is especially likely to occur in loose subcutaneous tissues. See STREPTOCOCCUS.

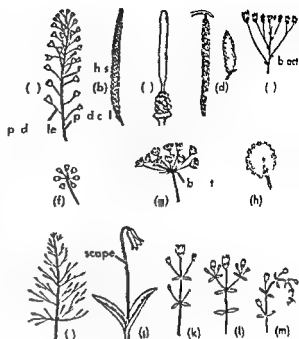
**Systemic effects of inflammation.** Many inflammations may give rise to no discernible generalized reactions. If the inflammation is severe there may be well recognized signs and symptoms. Fever and increased white blood cell count may be noted even with a localized abscess such as a carbuncle. Generalized abdominal pain may be present in appendicitis because of secondary inflammation of the lining of the abdominal cavity. Enlarged tender lymph nodes are frequently noted in association with a tonsillitis. Headache and double vision may be the first sign of a brain abscess. The systemic reaction will depend on location, severity, and character of the inflammatory process and firm generalizations cannot be made. Individuals with certain hormonal disturbances such as diabetes or vitamin deficiencies such as in scurvy are apt to respond poorly to inflammations particularly in infection. Partial immunity to an infectious agent either through prior exposure or preventive inoculation may modify the inflammatory reaction considerably. See IMMUNITY INFECTION. [W.S.A.]

**Bibliography:** H. Florey (ed.) *General Pathology* 2d ed. 1958.

## Inflorescence

An inflorescence is a flower cluster or the arrangement of flowers on a plant. It is a branch system—simple if the main axis is undivided, compound if the axis divides into two or more branches. The stalk of the inflorescence is the peduncle; the axis is the rachis; and the stalks of individual flowers of the cluster are pedicels. The inflorescence may be subtended by a whorl of bracts called the involucre.

**Types.** Inflorescences are classified as determinate when the terminal bud forms a flower, thereby arresting further growth of the axis, with later flower development in succession from the tip toward the base; or as indeterminate when the tip continues to grow, forming new flowers in succession, the oldest at the base. Indeterminate types include the following: raceme, pedicels of about equal length on an elongated axis; spike, similar to raceme but with sessile (without pedicels) flowers; spadix, a fleshy thickened spike frequently subtended by a large bract (spathe); catkin (ament), scaly spike sometimes pendent of unisexual flowers; corymb, lower pedicel elongated giving flat topped appearance; umbel, pedicels all arise at top of peduncle and radiate like umbrella ribs.



Inflorescence types: (a) Raceme (b) Spike (c) Spad (pistillate) (d) Catkins male and female (e) Corymb (f) Simple umbel (g) Compound umbel (h) Head (i) Panicle (j) Solitary (k) Simple cyme (l) Compound cyme (m) Helicoid cyme

head rounded or flattened compact cluster of sessile flowers on a very short axis or receptacle; panicle a branched raceme.

Determinate types include: solitary, lone flower on peduncle; cyme, loose flat topped cluster with central flowers opening first; helicoid cyme (often referred to as corpioid), coiled cluster with flowers on only one side of axis.

Considerable confusion exists regarding the use of the terms helicoid and scorpioid. As the two types are not readily discriminated, some taxonomists prefer to use the older and more common term corpioid for all coiled inflorescences. See FLOWER (BOTANY), PLANT ORGANS. [W.A.]

**Bibliography:** See PLANT TAXONOMY.

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An acute respiratory viral infection usually epidemic in occurrence.

Four immunologic types of influenza virus are known. Group A appears to be subject to continual antigenic changes; group B change to a lesser degree; and C and D groups remain antigenically stable. The infectious particle at 100 mμ in diameter may be inactivated by heat, ultraviolet irradiation, or formaldehyde. Chick embryo is the chief laboratory host for study and cultivation (see CULTURE, FIBRYONATED EGG). The virus are capable of agglutinating red blood cells from which they then spontaneously dissociate. See MYXOVIRUS.

In human infection the virus enters the respiratory tract in air-borne droplets within 1-7 days, inflammation of the respiratory tract occurring with

fever chills and muscular aches A symptomatic  
infectious disease Bacteriological diagnosis may pro-  
vide more evidence especially in amonnia  
Diagnosis by isolation from the stool  
washing inoculated into embryonated eggs or by  
hemagglutination inhibiting complement fixation  
utilizing antibody preparations in blood Serum  
COMPLEMENT FIXATION TEST NEUTRALIZING ANTIBODY  
Influenza outbreak in the epidemic wave and  
in the pandemic The antigenic shift of influenza  
virus is usually occurring gradually that strains de-  
scribed in the near future some immunity against  
the epidemic in the next several years However  
add new data to the antigenic shift of the group A  
virus from Asia in a pandemic of 1957-1958  
in which a kind of antigenic shift in one group A  
virus of pig and guinea and swine viruses had  
participated Epidemics may therefore with  
the participation of virus by travel accumulation  
of specific numbers of susceptible and mutation  
factors

embryonal degeneration ultra light of resistance to chemical disinfectants. See VIRAL DISEASES. {5135}

information theory

4 b a h i c m m n r n t h o r y d e v l e d t o p r b  
l m n o d n g A q u s e t e i n f o r m l i n  
t h e o r y t e f n a m e a l m e e f t h  
a m u n t i i m a t i g n d w h n t e t e n t f  
a m e s a g e r e l n d i n f o r m t o t h e o r y r e l  
h l y t h m a t m t l i o p b a b i l i t y  
F r t h s o t h t e r m a t m a t n t h e v a i f  
e a p p l i e d o n l y t h e r p o b b l i t u d e s  
n e m m a t i n t h r y u h s i g n a l d e t e c t n  
n d n e a n d p d t i o S e C O M M U N I C A  
t i o E L E C T R I C A L

Inf r m t th r y p d c r i e s o c m p r  
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i n p h y b e h n i r m a t t e o f t h e o r y I n 1913 C E  
c h a n p u b l i c h e d p e r t e g r a t i o n t h e o r y w h c h  
t m e d t h b s s f b q u e t w k e t a f o r m  
t t h e o r y

In f m t th y m m i s h n y t m s  
 u o m p t e d t h e t f g n i n g r a t e F i n d  
 t e n p p r p i d f i n o f i g n a l g r t w  
 t e n p p r p i d f i n o f i g n a l g r t w  
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 f i O f s p e c i a l i t e t a e o p t m l y t e m  
 h h f r a g m t i f m m u c i n s c i t e  
 a t t a m a m u m g n l g r a t O p t m l y t m s  
 p i f m m m y t m d e s i g n w i t h e

Although optimal systems often use complicated and expensive encoding equipment they provide the upper bounds on obtainable signaling rate and are the design of fast practical systems.

**Communication systems** In designing a one way communication system from the standpoint of information theory three parts are considered by the designer (1) the source which generates messages at the transmitting end of the system (2) the destination which ultimately receives the messages and (3) the channel consisting of a transmission medium or device for carrying signal from the source to the destination. Constraints beyond the mere physical properties of the transmission medium influence the designer. For example in designing a radio system only a given portion of the radio frequency spectrum may be available to him. His transmitter power may be limited. If the system is just

Disc te end conti ous cases A sou ce is c lled  
d er te if it me ages are sequen es of element  
(lett s) taken fr m an enu m rable t of po sibi li  
tie ( l ph bet) Thu so ce pr duc ng int ger  
data o w uen Engl h re d screte Sour es which  
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sp ch and mu sou ce Likewi e ch nels a  
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t to d cete ch nels

Noise is and noisy is the output of a channel need not agree with its input. For example, a channel might follow a noisy channel. Cryptographic devices to randomize the message. Privacy systems (scrambling). Still, if the output of the channel can be computed knowing just the input message, then the channel is called noiseless. If however, and message to make the output unpredictable even when the input is known, then the channel is called noisy.

Encoding and decoding Many nodes first  
break the message into a sequence of elementary  
blocks with a binary bit for each block as a  
representative code or signal. A table is used to put

subcutaneous tissue. The inflammatory process extends to neighboring compartments and acts as if there were multiple adjacent abscesses. Abscesses located deep under a surface may continue to expand and destroy much of the organ.

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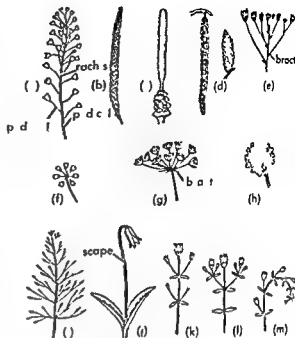
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le er chll and mu lar sch Asymptomatic  
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d e mo e ere ill es e pe ally pneumo a  
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PLEMENT FIXATION TEST NEUTRALIZ C ANTIBODY  
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an e t re l t d t i Se ANIMAL TRUS BIO  
LOGICALS [J L W]

# Information theory

A b an h i e m m n at n theory der ted t prob  
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he y l th m th m t l e f p obab l y  
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t appl ed fo ly t th r pr b bl t e t d es  
n m m i at theory uch a sig al d t uo  
nd m n and predict on S Co m l u n i c a  
t i o n s ELECTRICAL

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p a g i l g p h y t e m t r a t d H Nyquist a d  
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l a o s y b e h d i f f r m t the ry I n 1948 C E  
S h n n p u b l i d p e g e n e r a l i t y w h u h  
f m e d t h b f u b s e q u e n t n k n f r m  
t h e o r y

I n f m t the y m m u t o n y t m s  
m p e d the b a t f g n a l g a t F d  
n g p p i t e d f n i n o f m l g r t w a  
t e l l a p b l m h u c h S h n n l e d b the u e  
f h m e u f f r m a t n t b e e x p l e d  
l t O f p e c l n t e e x t e p l u m l a s t e r m s  
w h l f r a g n m f o m m i n f l t  
t a n a m m u m g n a l g a t O p t m l t m  
p r d m m n a t i n y t m d g n w t h u e

ful absolute bounds on obta nable signaling rates  
Although optimal y t e m s o f t e n u e c m p l i c a t d  
and expens e e n o d i n g e q u i p m e n t t h e y p r o v i d e  
i n i g h t i n t o t h e d e g n o f f a t p r a c t i c a l y t e m

Communication systems In de signing a one  
way communication sy tem from the standpoint of  
i f f r m a t i o n t h e o r y t h e e p a r t a r e c o n s i d e r e d b y  
y o d t h e c o n t r l o f t h e y t e m d e g n e r (1) t h  
o u c e w h i c h g e n e r a t e m e a g e s a t t h e t r a n m i t  
t u n g e n d f t h e y t e m (2) t h e d e t i a t i o n w h i c h  
l u m i n a t e s t h e m e a g e s a n d (3) t h e c h a n  
n e l o n t u n g o f a t s a m j o n m e d u m o r d e v i c e  
f o r o e y i n g g n a l s f r o m t h e o u r e t o t h e d e t i  
n a t o n C o t r a n t s b j o n d t h e m e r p h y s i c a l p r o p e r  
t e o f t h t r n m i o n m e d i m i n f l e n c e t h e  
d e a g e F r e x a m p l e i n d e s i g n n g a r a d i o s y t e m  
n l y a g n p o r t i n f i t h r a d i f r e q u e n c y s p e c  
t u m m y b e v a l a b l e t h i m H s t r a n m i t t r  
g w e r m y a l s b e l m i t d I f t h e y t e m i s j u t  
o e l i n k i n a l a r g e r s y t e m w h i p l a n s t o u e r e g  
a t i v e e p e t e s t h e d e s i g n e r m a y b r e s t r i c t e d  
t p u l t a n m i s o n s c h m e s A l l u c h c o n d i t i o n s  
s e c n d e d p a t f t h e d e c r p t i o n o f t h e c h a n  
n l T h u r e d n o t u s u a l l y p o d u c e m a g s  
i n a f o r m a c c e p t a b l e a s i p u t b y t h e c h a n n l T h e  
t r a n m i t t n g n d f t h e s y t e m c o n t a n s n t l r d e  
c c a l l e d a n n o d e w f c h p e a r e s t h e o u r e  
m e a g e s f o r i n p t t t h h a n e l S i m i l a r l y t h e r e  
e n g e n d o f t h e y t e m w i l l c o n t a n a d e c d e r t o  
o e r t h e u t p t o f t h e h a n e l n t a f o r m r e  
o g n a b l e b y t h e d e t i a t o n T h e e n c o d e r a n d  
d e d e r a r t h p a s t o b d e s i g n e d i n a d i s y s  
t e m s t h d e g n i s e s e n t a l l y t h e c h o i c e f a m o d u  
l a t r a d d e t e c t e r

Dis crete and c n t i n u o u s c a s A source is called  
d s c r e t e i f i t m e a g e s a r e s e q u e n c e s o f e l e m e n t s  
(l t t e s ) t a k e n f r m a n e n u m e r a b l e e t o f p s b i l i  
t y ( l i k a b e l ) T h u s o u r e p o d u c e n t e g e r  
d a t a o r w r i t t e n E n g l i s h r e d r e t e S o r e s w h i c h  
a r e t d s c r e t e r a l l d e c o t i o u s f o e x a m p l e  
p e c h n d m u o u r e L i k e w i e h a n n e l s r e  
l a f e d d i s c t e c n t i n o u s a c c i n g t h  
k n d f i l t h e y t a n m t M o t i r m i o n  
m e d a ( c h a s t a m n l n d r a d o p a t h )  
e a p w i d e s n n t n u u c h a n e l h o w e c o n  
s t r n t s ( s n b a a r e t r i c t n t u s e p l e t e h  
n q u ) n t e n o f t h e s e m d i a m a y c o n r t t h e m  
n t o d e t c h a n e l s

A n a l o g s r a n d n o s y e s T h o u t p u t f a c h n  
n l n e e d o t g r e w t h t i n p u t F o r e x m p l e a  
h a n l m g h t f e c r e c y p u p o s t a n a  
c r y p t o g r a p h c d e v i c t o c r a m b l e t h e m e s g e S e  
P R I V A C Y S Y S T E M S ( S C H A U B I N G ) S t i l l i f t h o u t p t  
f t h h a e l a b e m p t e d k w a n g ) s t t h e  
f p t m e g e t h e t h c h n n l l l e d n o c  
l s I f h o w e a n d o m g e i s m k e t h o t p u t  
p r d c t a b l e e n w h e t h m p t s k n w n t h e n  
t h e h n l i c h l d n i v

Encoding and decoding N y e n c d r s f i t  
l r e a k t h m e s g e t o a s e q u e m f l e m e n t a r y  
B l c k s n e x t t h e y h s i t t e f o e a h b l o c k a r p  
r e n t a t i o n o d g n i u a b l f o i n p t t o

the channel. Such encoders are called **block encoders**. For example, telegraph and teletype systems both use **block encoders** in which the blocks are individual letters. Entire words form the blocks of some commercial cablegram systems. The operation of a block encoder may be described completely by a function or table showing for each possible block the code that represents it.

It is generally impossible for a decoder to reconstruct with certainty a message received via a noisy channel. Suitable encoding, however, may make the noise tolerable. For illustration, consider a channel that transmits pulses of two kinds. It is customary to let binary digits 0 and 1 denote the two kinds of pulse. Suppose the source has only four letters A B C D. One might simply encode each single-letter block into a pair of binary digits (see Code I of table). In that case the decoder would make a mistake every time noise produced an error. If Code II is used, the decoder can at least recognize that a received triple of digits must contain errors if it is one of the triples 001 010 100 111 not listed in the Code II column. Because an error in any one of the three pulses of Code II always produces a triple that is not listed, Code II provides single error detection. Similarly, Code III provides double error detection because errors in a single pulse or pair of pulses always produce a quintuple that is not listed.

As an alternative, Code III may provide single error correction, an idea due to R. W. Hamming. In this usage, the decoder picks a letter for which Code III agrees with the received quintuple in as many places as possible. If only a single digit is in error, this rule chooses the correct letter. More elaborate lists of codes may be constructed to correct worse errors or to accommodate larger alphabets.

Even when the channel is noiseless, a variety of encoding schemes exists and there is a problem of picking a good one. Of all encodings of English letters into dots and dashes, the Continental Morse encoding is nearly the fastest possible one. It achieves its speed by associating short code words with the most common letters. A noiseless binary channel (capable of transmitting two kinds of pulse 0 1 of the same duration) provides the following example. Suppose one had to encode English text for this channel. A simple encoding might just use 27 different 5-digit codes to represent word space (denoted by #) A B C D E F G H I J K L M N O P Q R S T U V W X Y Z. The word #CAB would then be encoded into 00000000110000100010. A similar encoding is used in teletype transmission, however, it places a third

kind of pulse at the beginning of each code to help the decoder stay in synchronism with the encoder (see **TELETYPEWRITER**). The 5-digit encoding can be improved by a signing 4-digit codes 0000 0001 0010 0011 to the five most common letters # E T A O. There are 22 quintuples of binary digits which do not begin with any of the five 4-digit codes; these may be assigned as code words to the 22 remaining letters. About half the letters of English text are # E T A or O, thus the new encoding uses an average of only 4.5 digits per letter of message.

More generally, if an alphabet is encoded in single letter blocks using  $L(i)$  digits for the  $i$ th letter, the average number of digits used per letter is

$$L = p(1)L(1) + p(2)L(2) + p(3)L(3) + \dots \quad (1)$$

where  $p(i)$  is the probability of the  $i$ th letter. An optimal encoding scheme will minimize  $L$ . However, the encoded messages must be decipherable and this condition puts constraints on the  $L(i)$ . B. McMillan has shown that the code lengths of decipherable encodings must satisfy

$$2^{-L(1)} + 2^{-L(2)} + 2^{-L(3)} + \dots \leq 1 \quad (2)$$

The real numbers  $L(1), L(2), \dots$  which minimize  $L$  subject to the condition (2) are  $L(i) = -\log_2 p(i)$  and the corresponding minimum  $L$  is

$$H = -\sum p(i) \log_2 p(i) \quad (3)$$

digits per letter. The  $L(i)$  must be integers and  $-\log_2 p(i)$  generally are not integers for this reason; there may be no encoding which provides  $L = H$ . However, Shannon showed that it is always possible to assign codes to letters in such a way that  $L \leq H + 1$ . A procedure for constructing an encoding which actually minimizes  $L$  has been given by D. A. Huffman. For (27-letter) English text  $H = 4.08$  digits per letter, as compared with the actual minimum 4.12 digits per letter obtained by Huffman's procedure.

By encoding in blocks of more than one letter, the average number of digits used per letter may be reduced further. If messages are constructed by picking letters independently with the probabilities  $p(1), p(2), \dots$ , then  $H$  is found to be the minimum of the average numbers of digits per letter used to encode the messages using longer blocks.

**Information content of a message.** The information contained in a message unit is defined in terms of the average number of digits required to encode it. Accurately the information associated with a single letter probability distribution is defined to be the number  $H$ . Sometimes properties of  $H$  help to justify intuitively that information is one of the  $p(i)$  quantities. If a letter appears in the message, then the information gained by knowing a letter is  $-\log_2 p(i)$ . Second of all possible ways of assigning probabilities  $p(i)$  to an alphabet is that in which

Three possible binary codes for 4-letter alphabet

Letter	Code I	Code II	Code III
A	00	000	00000
B	01	011	00111
C	10	101	11001
D	11	110	11110

m xim zes  $H_1 p(1) = p(2) = \dots = 1/N$  Th s  
 situation s the ne in which th unk n wn lette  
 seem mo t ncert n therfo e it does em c r  
 r t that learn ng such a letter p o ide the most  
 i f m t o The correspond ng maximum alue of  
 $H$  s  $\log N$  Th s re l t s ems ea nable by th  
 following argument When two independent letter  
 ar le rned the info m t on obtained should be  
 $2H = 2 \log N$  Howe r u h pairs of l t r may  
 be onsid red to b the letters of a la g r alph  
 bet of  $N$  qu lly likely pairs The nf rmat on as  
 soci ted with o e f these n w lette s is  $\log_2 N =$   
 $2 \log N$  Alth ough  $H$  g n by Eq (3) s d m en  
 less it s g e u n t s called b t (a c n t e c t n  
 of b i a r y d g t s) O nally the inform t n is  
 p e e d m d g t of oth r kind ( u h as te  
 n p e r o d e c m a l) Th n b a s oth r than 2 ar u d  
 f r the lo arithm in Eq (3)

Enr py Most me age s ce do not m rely  
 p r k auc e i e l t t r nd p nd nly F r exampl  
 m Engl h l t the mo t h k ly lette to f l low T  
 b t s oth r w t o m m n The o r e i m g  
 n d t be and m p o c e s which the letter  
 p b a b l i t i e s cha g e d p e d i g on what the p a t  
 of the m s age has bee Stati al co r l a t n s  
 betw e d f e n t part of th me age may be x  
 p l t e d by encod ng longe block Th a r age  
 m b r of d g t p e r l t t e r m y the e h y be red ced  
 bet w the g l t t e n f r m t on  $H$  g ven by Eq  
 (3) F r exampl by e cod ng E g l h word i  
 e t s d f n g l ( u r l d g t s) n e r t h e En  
 cod ng lo g a d l g e block th number of  
 d g t s needed p e r l t t e app r hes al m n g m  
 m m valu Th l m t s call d th ent py f th  
 souce and i n t p r e d e a s l rate b t p e  
 lett at wh h the souce ge n rates inf rmat n  
 i f the r e p r o d u c e lette t m f i x e d a e g  
 rate b t r / e c, the tropy may also t on  
 v e r t e d m e a t n b t p e r s e c n d by m l t p l  
 g n g n Th ntropy may be m p t d f r m table  
 ng th p b b l t s of block f A letters  
 (  $g r m$  ) i f n Eq (3) the m m t on index s a  
 e t d d o n l l h gram then th m b e r  $H$  r e p r e  
 s e n t s th inf rmat A c c u r e l t t e A  
 $\lambda \rightarrow \infty H/\lambda$  app e h th e t p y of the ou e  
 Th e t p f s g l h h b e n e t m a t e d b  
 Sh n n t b e b r u t l b t t e H w e a n e n  
 d e n m g h t h a t n e e d 100-gram q d e r t  
 e h a e d t t n a r l d g t s e t t e C o m p a r  
 g Engl h with a u e w h c h p o d u c e s  
 q l l y l k e l y l t r d e p n d e t l y ( n d h n c h a s  
 n t p l g 7 = 48 b t i t t ) th e l t s i f  
 t n e m a t d E g l h h 80 c r d n d a n t O t h e  
 m m n u e s j r y e d d a n t F a c i m  
 d l t m p l a b e p e e d e d by a f a t o f 10  
 b y m f p t l e o d x t e h n g u e

Capacity Th t n f n i r p m w d l v  
 p b l b t h a n m g h t p p e f r m th d i c u n  
 f b n a r y h a l A d y s c r t e n e l h a n  
 l m y b e g n n n m b e r C w h h l l e d th  
 p a t y C d f n e d a th m a m m t ( l t  
 p e e c o d ) i f s o u e e t h t m y b e n n e t e d  
 d r e c t l y t h i f j S h a n p d t h t n y

g n s u r c e ( w h i h p e r h a p s c a n o t b e c o n n e c t e d  
 d r e c t l y t o t h e c h a n n e l ) of e n t r o p y  $H$  b u t s / l e t t e r  
 c a n b e n e e d e d f o r the c h a n n e l a n d r u n a t r a t e s  
 a r h t r a t i c a l l y c l o s e t o  $C/H$  l e t t e r s / e c

By u n g r e p t i t s m e r r o r c o r r e c t i n g c o d e s o r  
 s i m i l a r t e c h n i q u e s th r e l a b i l i t y of t r a n m i s s i o n  
 o r a n o t h y c h a n n e l c a n b e i n c r e a s e d a t the e x  
 p e n s e f l w i n g d o w n the s o u r c e I t m i g h t b e e x  
 p e c t e d t h a t the o u r e r a t m u l t i p l i e d t o 0  
 b u t s / s e c o n d a t h t r a n s m i s s i o n s i s r e q u i r e d t o b e  
 m e a n g l y e r r f r e e O n the e n t r y Sh a n n o n  
 p r e d t h a t e v e n a n o t h y h a n e l h a s a c a p a c i t y  
 $C$  S u p p o e t h a t t r m m a t m o t a f r a c t i o n of  
 the l e t t e r s i f the m e s a g e c a n b e t o l e r a t e d (  $> 0$  )  
 S u p p o e l t h a t a g e n e r a t o r of e n t r o p y  $H$   
 b t / l e t t e r m u t b e o p e r a t e d a t the r a t e of a t l e a s t  
 $(C/H) - \delta$  l e t t e r s / e c (  $\delta > 0$  ) N o m a t t e r h o w  
 s m l l e a n d  $\delta$  a r e c h o s e n a n e c o d e r c a n b e f o u n d  
 w h h a s t h e r e q u i r e m e n t

F o r e x a m p l the s y m m e t r i c b i n a r y h a n n e l h a s  
 t n a r y i p u t a n d o u t p u t l e t t e r n o m c h a n g e s a  
 f r e c t o p of th 0 s t o 1 a n d a f a t i n p l the  
 l s t o 0 a n d t m s s u c m m d i g i t s i n d e p e n d e n t l y  
 The a p a c i t y of th c h a n n e l i s

$$C = m(1 + p \log_2 p + (1 - p) \log_2 (1 - p))$$

where  $m$  i s the n u m b e r of d g t s p e r s e c o n d w h i c h  
 the h a n e l t n m i t

A f m o s f o r m u l a

$$C = W \log_2 \left( 1 + \frac{S}{N} \right) \quad (4)$$

g r e s th a p a c i t y  $C$  f a b a n d l m t e d c n t n o u  
 c h a n e l The c h a n n e l c o n s i s t s of a f r e q u e n c y l a d  
 $W$  c y c l e s p e r s e c o n d w i d e c n t m n g C a l c u l a t e  
 n o i s e p o w e r  $N$  The n o i s e h a s f l a t a p e c t r m  
 o r r i b b n d a d d e d t o th s g n a l by the  
 c h a n n e l The h a n n e l a l c o n t a i n s a t r i t n  
 t h a t the a g g r e g a t e p o w e r m a y n o t e x c e e d  $S$

E q u a t i o n (4) i l l u t r a t e s a n e x c h a n g e e l a s t i c  
 s h p b e t w e n b a n d w i d t h  $W$  d l t o n o m a t i o  
 $S/N$  B y s t a b l e e n d i g s g n a l n g t m c a n  
 u s e a m l l b a n d w i d t h p r o d e d t h t h e s i g n l  
 p o w e r i s a l s o r e a d r e s e n g h t k p C h e d S e e  
 B a n d w i d t h R E Q U I R E M E N T S ( C O M M U N I C A T I O N S )

T y p i c a l a p p l i c a t i o n s r e 0 0 0 0 b t s / e c f r  
 t e l e p h m t e e c h e t u t d 5 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 b t / e c  
 f r a b o d e a s t l e t o n e t u t S p e e c h a n d T V  
 a e v r y e d u d a t a a n d w o l d u e h a n n e l o f  
 m u h l o w e c a p a c i t y i f the m e s s a g e s r y n c o d n g s  
 w e r i n e x p e n F o r a m p l the o d e c a n  
 e n d s p h o l s l g h t l y d i s t o r t e d o 2 0 0 0 -  
 b t / e c h a n n e l ( s e e V o c o d e r ) S u c c e s s f u l l y  
 o f a m e s t l s u n t n o t t o l o o k a l i k e T h e r e  
 m b l a n u g g e t s a h g h r d d a c y h o w e v e r  
 t x p l o t t h e n d e r m v h a t e n c o d e i n  
 v e r y l g b l o c k s

h a t a l l f t h w a t e r i n c h a n n e l a p a c i t y a n b  
 t r i b u t e d t o s o r e r e d d a n e E v e n w i t h  
 r e d d a n t s o r s u h a a s o u r c e p r d i g r  
 d m d g t s o m e c h a n n e l c a p a c i t y w i l l b e w a s t e d  
 Th i m p l i e d g h m p r o v i d r l a b l e  
 t a n m m n l y a t a s t e q u a l t h c a p a c i t y f



a channel with roughly 8 db smaller signal power (the 8 db figure is merely typical and really depends on the reliability requirements). Again more efficient encoding to combat noise generally requires larger sized blocks. This is to be expected. The signal is separated from the noise on the basis of differences between the signal's statistical properties and those of noise. The block size must be large enough to supply the decoder with enough data to draw statistically significant conclusions. See NOISE ELECTRICAL [ENG]

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## Information theory (biological applications)

Information is customarily analyzed with respect to meaning, origin and value. The modern information theory adds another dimension, amount. The need for a measure of amounts of information arose in telecommunication and in the general treatment of control and communication (cybernetics). Once a precise technical definition had been developed it was found that its domain of validity was wide and included biology. See BIOLOGY CYBERNETICS.

**Representation theorem.** The first basic concept in information theory is that the information content of an event is not defined by what has occurred but only with respect to what might have occurred instead. For instance the amount of information in the phrase "4 miles per hour" is defined only against a background of other possible speeds. To formalize this idea consider the set of all actualities (things, processes) which may be relevant in a given class of situations. Let these actualities be partitioned into classes according to any principle chosen; the elements together form a pattern of information about the actualities under consideration. Amount of information is not defined with respect to the actualities themselves but with respect to a given pattern of information about them. It is related to the task of specifying (encoding, recognizing) a particular class in a particular pattern for a particular actuality.

The information contents of two different patterns are compared by determining whether one can represent the other. If every class in a pattern  $A$  can be associated with at least one class in a pattern  $B$  then every event as defined under pattern  $A$  can be represented by some event defined

under pattern  $B$  and  $B$  is said to have an information content at least as great as  $A$ . The comparison is merely formal; it makes no difference whether the association invoked is natural or arbitrary and whether or not a representation of  $A$  by  $B$  is likely to occur. A common yardstick for all patterns of information is obtained by using a standard representation: it is customary to use binary symbols. In other words the information content of a pattern  $X$  is determined by finding how many vectors or no decisions are needed on average to specify which particular class of the pattern has occurred. As in a botanical key the number of decisions made is not necessarily the same for all classes; it will be efficient to associate events which occur frequently with the shortest decision sequences (as in the Morse code in which the shortest symbol groups are used for the most frequent letters). It is shown in texts on information theory that the optimum relation is achieved if each class of probability  $p$  is represented by a binary number of  $-\log p$  digits. In general it will be necessary to set up the representation for a sized clusters of events in order to obtain a classification in which all probabilities  $p$  are integral powers of  $1/2$ . Therefore if  $X$  is a pattern of information comprising  $r$  classes with probabilities  $p_i$  (where  $i = 1, 2, \dots, r$ ) then  $\text{ex}_1$  is a function  $H(X)$  which is the minimum average number of binary symbols per event; its value is given by

$$H(X) = \sum p_i (-\log_2 p_i)$$

$H(X)$  can be as small as 0 (when one  $p_i = 1.0$ ) and as large as  $\log_2 r$  (when all  $p_i$  are equal). It is called information content (amount, quantity of information) of  $X$  and also the uncertainty of  $X$  (some prefer opposite sign for the two functions). It is also called entropy (or negentropy) because it is related to physical entropy; the term "measure of specificity" can be used to avoid the association with mental processes implied by the word "information". See ENTROPY.

The  $H$  function is important in dealing with transfer of information. Any operation on information involves mapping from one pattern  $A$  into another pattern  $B$ . In many instances the patterns are very dissimilar and the transfer operation far from perspicuous. The following theorem holds for every act of information transfer: transfer from pattern  $A$  into pattern  $B$  is possible only if  $H(B) \geq H(A)$  and the amount of information transferred per act cannot be greater than  $H(A)$ . This is the content of the representation theorem, the first fundamental theorem of information theory. It implies that it is not allowed to check the possibility of a representation in itself simply that such an operation actually occurs; it says nothing about the means of information transfer and particularly does not imply that efficient binary coding is used at any stage of the process. It says nothing about causal effect of the

perat n and ther fo e applies ju t as well to  
s eous e mmun cat a t th tan fr of  
gen t pec h at n f om par n to fsp ing

Re u n f m m a l bo o k k p i n g c a h a p l e d t a y f r m o f i n t e a c t i n t h e r e p e s e n t a t i n t h e o e m p o i d e s a u f u l c t n w h h a n y f p d m e c h a i m m u t i f y I f p a t d o f a s y t e m i s p p o d t c n t r l p a r t B t h e n u m t b e a m e d t h a t p t A c a m i t a t l e t s m a n y d i f f t c t o l g n l s a s t h e e a r d i f f r n t c n t l l e d r e s p o e n B I f A s u p p e d t o m a i n t a i n h o m t o f B t h e n t h e e f f i c i e n t y o f c t r l g a l e m i t t e d b y A m t m a t c h t h r i e t y o f f c t w h h t d t o m o e B a w y f o m t f i x d v l u e S p e c i f i c i t y f p i n g f h o r m o n w i t h t a r t r g e e n y m e w i t h s b a t r a e a n d a n g s w i t h t h d e n t h e b e o f d i e t e d c m m u c t i m p l i t h t h e p e f i c a t i o n o f o e r e a u o n p r t m i s b e o m e h w i n r i b e d p o n t h e t h r i f t h e c h o i c e o f l a m i o a i d t o f 20 t b e a p e f i e d b y e l i t r o f n u c l e o t d s t a k e f m s t f 4 t h e e l t r o f 2 s n s u f f i c i e t b e u t y i l d s o n l y 16 c m b u t i o n n d a l u t e o f 3 y i l d 64 w h i h m e t h a e d e d m u h f l o t h b e n p e t s f a r w i t h u t s u c c e s s t o t b l h a d t t a v i m o f o r r e p n d e n e b e t w e t h e r w k n d s f m l c u l e s S A m i o a c i o s

O n e m i g h t e x p e c t t f i n d n i o m a t n a l l k k e e p i n g m t e w a d g n d e a l i n g w i t h t m l u p e p i n d r e p o n H o w e t h t n l y f t h n p i e r a l p a r t f t h p e s I f o r m u t i n n a l h l p l f n m a p p i n g s t m u l p r p t n e e r g n t e p e s n d n r y s i g a l n d i n m p p m a c l a t i o n u p n e r v e i g l f t h o o y l d a t f a t r y l i s i n m y l y z i n g t h r a l l p e f o r m s f t h e r g a i m H o w e r i t h a n o f a b e e m p l t e l y u d e g i t i n d a l i n g w i t h t e l i m y t m I n o m g i g a l d p p i t o a n d r p n e s e o t f s y s t e m t h t r d r f m a g t d e m o c o m p l x i s t r u t a d f u t i n t h n e a l e a c t d f o i a n y m p l f u h i f t s p t d t h a t e n t r l o p e r a t i o n s o c c n h g h l y m p l t t a t e l f a h i n h h w l d e c s t a t e m h e l m e t a r y i f f m t t a f f t a h e e a c m p a r t e l y m p l l t w i t h g h r e b l i r y

**Noise and redundancy theorem** The e l a t u b e t w e e n r l b i l i t y a d i n f m t n c n t n t n t u t a t e s t h s e c n d h a p e r t o f i n f r m t i o n t h e o r y C o n d n f m t n t r f e r f r m X n t o l f r a m p l l s Y b e t h e i n p u t a d Y t h e r p t f o m e y s t m I f s c h r t s f r p o c s s p e f e c t l y e l a b l t h n k w i n g X i m p l e k w g l a d v e c e r s X n d Y r d t o b e n c t d b y n e e l e s c h a n e l n d  $H(X) = H(Y)$  I f t h t a f p o c e s s b y t s p e r t u b a t t h t a f t h e c h n l m o i y t h s w n f m a t n w l l b l t i n t e i t a n d t h r e w i l l b e m r t y n g Y f Y k n w n T h i u n r r t y i c a l l d e q u o c a t n n d d g t e d  $H(X/Y)$  T h d f f e u c e r t n t y e r r u g

Y b e f o r e a d a f t e r t h e t r a n f e r p r o c e s s t h a t i s  $H(Y) - H(Y/Y)$  i s c l l e d t h a m o u n t o f i n f o r m a t i n t r a n s m i t t e d

I f c n t o l a c t i o n d e p e n d s u p o n i n f o r m t i o n t r a n s m i t t e d t h n i n p u t e q u o c a t i o n w i l l s o m e t i m e s l e d t f a u l t y r e p o e T h e o n l y p r o t e c t i o n a g a i n s t l o s o f i n f o r m a t i o n i s t h i c o r p o r a t i o n i n t o t h e i n p u t f e x t r a i n f r m t i o n w h i c h c a n b e u e d t o s p t a n d c o r r e c t e r r o r T h i s i s r e d u n d a n t i n f o r m t i o n A t i a l a m p l e o f r e d u n d a n c y i s t h e r e p e t i t i o n o f a m e s g e I f g e n r l t h e p r o b a b i l i t y o f a e r r o r r e m a i n i n g u n c o r r e c t e d w i l l b e s m a l l r t h e m o r e r e d u n d a n t i n f o r m a t i o n i s a d d e d a n d t h e m r e e f f i c i e n t l y i t u s e d I t i s h w n i n t e x t s o n i n f o r m a t i n t h e o r y t h a t i t i s p o s s i b l e t o m a k e t h e e r o p r o b a b i l i t y a n i s h b y p r e c i s l y m a t h i n g t h e a m o u n t o f r e d u n d a n t i n f o r m a t i o n t o t h e a m o u n t o f i n f o r m t n w h h s e x p e c t e d t b l o s t a s a r e s u l t o f n o i s e T h i s i s t h e c o n t e n t o f t h n o i s e a n d r e d u n d a n c y t h e o r e m t h e s e c n d f u n d a m e n t a l t h e o r e m i n i n f o r m t i o n t h e o r y

A l t h o u g h t i s a l w a y p o s s i b l e t o e l i m i n a t e e r r o r s i t i s o f t e n o t p a c t i c a l a n d i n d e d n o t e f f i c i e n t I t h i s b e e n s e e d t h a t a n o p t i m u m s t r a t e g y f o r l i n g t h a g a s t o c o m m i t a s m a n y e r r o r s a s i s i m p a t i b l w i t h s u r v i v a l (O a n o f f a p r i n c i p l ) T h s h a b e e n u e d t e s t a b l i s h r e l a t i o n s b e t w e e n t h e p o b a b i l i t y o f a n o g a n s m t o f a i l ( f r e x a m p l e d e a t h r a t ) a n d a m u n t o f w e a r a d t e a r i t i s a s h j e c t d o t h e c o u r s e o f o r d n a r y a g i n g o a s a r e s u l t o f t h e d m n t r i o n o f a o u d e l e t e u v g n t S e I N F O R M A T I O N T H E O R Y [ R O ] B i b l g r a p h y F A l t u n e a n A p p l i c a t i o n s o f I n f o r m a t i o n T h e r y t P s y c h o l o g y 1959 H Q u a t l e r I n f o r m a t i o n a t h e o r y n d i o b o l g v A n R e v N u c l a r S c i 8 287 398 19 8 C E S h a n n o n T h e M t h m a t o f T h o y o f C o m m u n i c a t i o n 1949 H P Y o c k e y ( e d ) S y m p o s i u m o n I n f o m a t i n T h e o r y n B i o l o g y 1958

## Infrared detector

A d e v i c e f o r d e t e c t i n g e l e c t r o m a g n e t i c a d i a t o n h a n g a w a e l t h g r e a t e r t h a n t h t d e t e c t a b l e b y t h h u m a n e S e I N F R A R E D R A D I A T I O N

I f r d d e t e c t o r s a r e u s e d n e l e c t o n e e q u i p m e n t f o r m a y p u p o s s a s c l a s d e t e c t i n g f i e x d e t e c t g a h e a t n u m c h n e r y d e t e c t i n g p l e c t h e s n d e v e p e o p l e n d c o n t o l l g t i m p e r a t u r e s e n s i t i v e n d t r i a l p o c e s s e s

I n f r e d d e t e c t o r s m a y b e l s f i e d b y t h e b s i m e c h n m o f o p t i o n O n c l a s c a l l e d t h e r m a l d e t e c t o r s u s e t h e p o w e r f t h e r a d a t o n t o i n r a e t h e t e m p e r a t u r e o f t h e d e t e c t o r t o g l m n T h i s i n t a r c a s s o m e p r p e r t y o f t h e d e t e c t o r o f t e n t h e e l e t a l r e s t a n t c h a g e I n t h e e c o d c l a r e d p h r o d t c t s t h e r d i t i o n p o d e s a d e c t f l e c t s o m l e c t a l p r o p e r t y f t h e d e t e c t o r

T h e t h e r m f c l a s s e m p l u s e s t h e r a d a t o t h e r m o c u p l e t h b o l m t a n d t h e G l y c e l l T h e r a d a t o t h e m o c p l h s n u m b e r o f t h e r m o c o u p l e s n e c t d m s e r a r a n g e d t h a t t h e

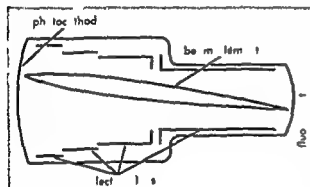
radiation falls on half of the junctions thus causing a voltage to be generated. The bolometer functions through a resistance change in a material having a high temperature coefficient of resistance. The Golay cell utilizes the heat of the radiation to deflect a diaphragm in accordance with the amount of radiation. See **BOLOMETER** **THERMOCOUPLE**.

The photodetector can be classified by type of most efficient material as a photoconductive and photovoltaic. The material can be classified into the compound types such as lead sulfide, lead selenide, lead telluride, and thallium sulfide, and the elemental types such as germanium and silicon. However, some types such as germanium or silicon photo diodes and phototransistors can be used as either photoconductive or photovoltaic detectors. For more detailed information see **PHOTOCONDUCTIVE CELL** **PHOTODIODE** **PHOTOTRANSISTOR** **PHOTOVOLTAIC CELL** **RADIOMETRY** [WRS]

## Infrared image converter tube

A tube which effectively allows one to see in the dark. It was developed during World War II in response to an obvious need for such a device.

The infrared image converter tube or the infrared tube cope as it is sometimes called is an evacuated tube which has on one end a transparent



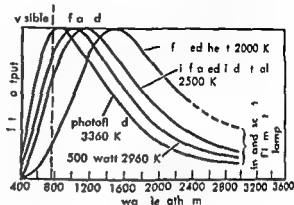
Infrared image converter tube

photocathode sensitive to infrared radiation. The scene to be viewed is optically focused on this photocathode causing electrons to be emitted in proportion to the intensity of the infrared illumination. The electrons so emitted are focused by electric lenses upon a fluorescent screen at the other end of the tube which is excited by electrons impact into radiating visible light and thus give a visible image of the invisible excitation at the other end of the tube. The basic structure is shown in the illustration. Such tubes are sensitive out to 12  $\mu$ . The visible spectrum extends only to 0.4  $\mu$ .

The infrared image tube is itself sensitive enough to see any but rather warm objects such as a hot engine or a lighted cigarette. As a result it is necessary to use an infrared searchlight to illuminate the field to be viewed. With such an arrangement, items were made which had a range of as much as 100 yd. See **INFRARED RADIATION** **VACUUM TUBE** [ARS]

## Infrared lamp

An electric lamp that radiates energy at wavelengths between 760 and 5000 millimicrons ( $m\mu$ ) in the electromagnetic spectrum. Infrared lamps



Spectral distribution of energy from various infrared sources (From Illuminating Engineering Society IES Lighting Handbook 2d ed 1952)

are essentially incandescent lamps operating at a reduced voltage with a filament temperature of 4000 F. Between 10 and 15% of the energy is converted to light. Both carbon and tungsten filament are used; the tungsten is more efficient. The average life is 5000 hr and 25 different types are available. Other forms of radiant heaters generate longer wavelengths causing heat absorption by the air. The short wave generated by the infrared lamp can be concentrated and directed. The reflector type lamp is the most satisfactory. The illustration shows the spectral distribution of energy from various incandescent filament lamps. The infrared lamps concentrate their energy in the infrared region.

Infrared lamps are used for therapeutic treatment for heating applications in industry and in home and for farm use in brooders (called heat lamp). They are effective and safe and the heating effect is instantaneous because the air need not be heated first. The most extensive application is in industry where they are used for baking (such as the curing of applied finish) for heating (as in preparing material for pre-curing) and for drying (reap rating liquid). See **INFRARED RADIATION** **INFRARED RADIATION (BIOLOGY)** **SPECTROPHOTOMETRY** **ANALYSIS** [JOK]

Bibliography Illuminating Engineering Society IES Lighting Handbook 2d ed 1952

## Infrared radiation

Electromagnetic radiation whose wavelength lies in the range from about 0.8 millimeter to 1000 microns (1 mm). The lower wavelength limit is slightly the long wavelength limit of the human eye sensitivity to red light and the upper limit is the wavelength limit to radiation which can be generated and measured by microwaves. Infrared radiation is all solid bodies which set in motion at all temperatures.

lute zero add to some other in the infrared and if the effect temperature has a value up to about 3000 K, the addition falls preponderantly in the infrared. He infrared radiation is fit for cell heat radiation rays.

The infrared new discovered about 1800 by Sir William Herschel. He found that the unit heat distribution to a part of the spectrum showed it was the heating effect of the visible part of the spectrum just before the red end. Herschel noted that the effect was due to a visible distribution of the same nature as light, but it is an ability to affect the temperature. In the next 50 years experimental proof of this was slowly accumulated and the science generally accepted by scientists for the past century.

Among the scientific industrial and military applications of infrared add to the may be mentioned qualitative and quantitative chemical analysis by infrared spectroscopy, one of the most important processes in analytical chemistry. Infrared spectroscopy (BIOLOGY) INFRARED SPECTROSCOPY MISSILE GUIDANCE SYSTEMS PHOTOGRAPHY RADIOMETRY SPECTROPHOTOMETRY ANALYSIS.

**Infrared spectrum** The infrared spectrum is often divided into three regions: near infrared, middle infrared, and far infrared. The near infrared region is the region of the spectrum closest to the visible light, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing. The middle infrared region is the region of the spectrum between the near and far infrared, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum furthest from the visible light, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing.

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Subdivisions of the infrared spectrum

Wavelength range	Wavenumber range	Typical uses	Appropriate detection methods
0.7 - 1.5 μm	4000 - 1500 cm <sup>-1</sup>	NIR spectroscopy, remote sensing	Photodiodes, phototransistors
1.5 - 5 μm	1500 - 600 cm <sup>-1</sup>	IR spectroscopy, remote sensing	Photodiodes, phototransistors
5 - 50 μm	600 - 20 cm <sup>-1</sup>	IR spectroscopy, remote sensing	Photodiodes, phototransistors
50 - 1000 μm	20 - 0.1 cm <sup>-1</sup>	IR spectroscopy, remote sensing	Photodiodes, phototransistors

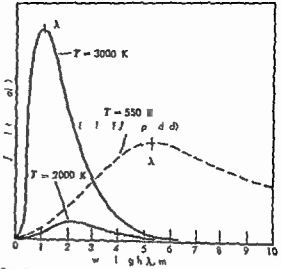


Fig 1 Spectral distribution of intensity  $I$  from a black body (the term applied to the perfect radiator) at temperature  $T$ . The distribution of power with wavelength is shown.

The region of the spectrum called the infrared is the region of the spectrum between the visible light and the microwave. It is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing. The infrared spectrum is often divided into three regions: near infrared, middle infrared, and far infrared. The near infrared region is the region of the spectrum closest to the visible light, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing. The middle infrared region is the region of the spectrum between the near and far infrared, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum furthest from the visible light, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing.

**Sources of infrared radiation** The usual source of infrared radiation is the incandescent light bulb. The light bulb produces a continuous spectrum of radiation, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing. The infrared spectrum is often divided into three regions: near infrared, middle infrared, and far infrared. The near infrared region is the region of the spectrum closest to the visible light, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing. The middle infrared region is the region of the spectrum between the near and far infrared, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing. The far infrared region is the region of the spectrum furthest from the visible light, and it is used in many applications, including spectroscopy and remote sensing.

into quantum detectors resonant detectors and heat engines or thermal detectors. The first are devices which convert a quantum of the radiation in question into a proportionate signal by some process which is insensitive to quanta of less than a certain energy (for example the mean energy of quanta emitted by a body at room temperature). Photographic emulsions photoelectric cells and Geiger counters are examples of quantum detectors. Resonant detectors are devices that are responsive only to radiation of the frequency to which they are tuned. Heat engines act as detectors by converting the radiation into heat and using the heat to operate a device that produces a signal that is proportionate to the amount of radiant energy received.

No resonant detectors have yet been constructed which can be tuned to infrared frequencies. For the photoelectric infrared (see the table) quantum detectors in the form of specially sensitized photographic emulsions photoemissive cells and particularly photoconductive cells are usable. As can be seen from Fig. 2 the responsivity of such detectors varies considerably with frequency and drops to low values at wave numbers of about 2000–3000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (3.5–5  $\mu$  in wavelength). Photoconductive detectors are known having good responsivity below 2000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (above 5  $\mu$ ) but these must be operated at or near liquid helium temperatures (<10 K).

Therefore in a large part of the infrared region heat engine detectors whose responsivity is the same to all kinds of radiation provided the radiation is converted entirely to heat in the detector are the

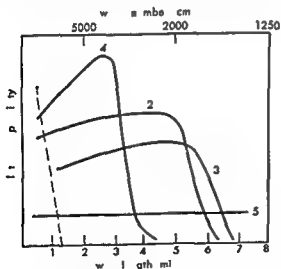


Fig. 2 Spectral sensitivity of infrared detectors: 1 Infrared sensitized photographic emulsion; 2 PbTe (lead telluride) photoconductive detector (refrigerated); 3 PbSe (lead selenide) photoconductive detector; 4 PbS (lead sulfide) photoconductive detector; 5 thermal detector response. The approximate wavelengths at which detectors 1, 2, 3, and 4 become less responsive than a thermal detector are correctly shown.

only generally usable kind. Examples of heat engine detectors are thermocouples and thermopiles which produce an emf when heated bolometers which change their electrical resistance when heated and pneumatic radiometer in which heat is detected by the increase in pressure of a heated gas. Because these devices are all subject to the laws of thermodynamics governing the conversion of heat into useful work (that is, into a signal), their ultimate responsivity is expected to be approximately the same, and this is found to be the case. Thermal detectors operating at room temperature have a lower limit of sensitivity of the order of  $10^{-10}$  watt with response times of the order of 0.1 sec. This limit can be considerably reduced if the detector is capable of operation at low temperature.

**Propagation of infrared radiation.** The properties of various media for the transmission of infrared radiation are often quite different from those of light. For example, window glass is quite opaque to 5  $\mu$  radiation, whereas pure germanium crystals, which do not transmit visible radiation, are very transparent to this wavelength (apart from reflection losses which can be reduced by surface coatings).

The attenuation of infrared radiation by the atmosphere is of special interest. Nitrogen, oxygen, and the rare gases are transparent to all infrared wavelengths, but water vapor and carbon dioxide are strongly absorbing in certain regions. In the range 0.8–40  $\mu$ , there is irregular absorption due mainly to water vapor, with more or less open windows at about 1.0, 1.4, 1.6, 2.2, and 3.4  $\mu$ . From 4 to 8  $\mu$ , water vapor and carbon dioxide together are strongly absorbing, but there is an extensive window from 8 to 13.5  $\mu$ . This window is of great meteorological importance because the peak of the radiation curve of the earth falls near 10  $\mu$ . Beyond 14 out to 600  $\mu$ , there is more or less continuous absorption by atmospheric water vapor arising from the rotational energy level of this molecule.

Liquid water is rather generally opaque in the infrared above 2  $\mu$ , in path lengths larger than 1 mm. The transmission of infrared radiation through fog is little better than that through clear air because of a combination of scattering and absorption by the water droplets. The principal misconception that fog is transparent to infrared radiation has perhaps arisen from the well-advertised effectiveness of red sensitive photographic film for photography through atmospheric haze of light particles.

[N.C.L.]

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### Infrared radiation (biology)

Infrared radiation occupies the span between the visible spectrum and radio waves encompassing wavelengths 7800-4 000 000 Å. Neither boundary being fully delimited. All bodies above absolute zero temperature are potential sources of infrared radiation. The effect of all organisms are continually perceived through the atmosphere of the earth. Water absorbs infrared radiation strongly except for the band of transparency between 7800 and 14 000 Å. Since protoplasmic elements in water absorb infrared radiation readily a large number of infrared radiation is utilized only the portion from 14000 to 14 000 Å penetrates as far as the blood vessels.

S INFRARED RADIATION

While many b t n and eve tis es selec  
tely absorb nf a ed ray nd e might there  
be po t late s l ct e effect of the e rad at n  
n ka be nequ o ally dem nstrated exc pt  
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pe hap be a m q nts of nfr s d rad at n do  
not e ne ene gy t tes t m le wlex th s than  
tho exc ted b o d eted h at S e XRAY(s)  
PHYSICAL NATURE OF

The overall biological effect of infrared rays depends primarily on the rate of temperature production following the absorption which turns the earth into a biological furnace. Proportion to the temperature change. Because of the primary effect of direct night, the main way of adaptation to the temperature to dish heat. The temperature of the large animal plants may not improve but the heat is adapted by the temperature but the plants are by the proportion in the small animals and plants are protected by the water the temperature to the range of which depends on the heat capacity of the plant body (water).

The time interval between with nitr red  
d t n (800-11,500 Å) at the b f re or ft  
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b e r f o d l e f p e r p h a l l p f r  
p h p p o a l w l a d t r g e n e r a l l y e m  
p h r e d b f s o m p i p o e s t h e m e p e n t r t  
g d i n (800-1500 A) b i a n b l f o m  
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### Infrared spectroscopy

The study of the properties of matter by means of the interaction with infrared radiation dispersed in a spectrum (see INFRARED RADIATION). The infrared region is valuable for study of the structure of matter because the natural vibrational frequencies of atoms in molecules and molecular fall in the infrared range. Some gaseous molecules also have rotational frequencies in the infrared range and certain frequencies correspond to the energy levels of electrons in solid and large molecules correspond to those of the nuclear forces and the distribution of molecular vibration and rotation. **MOLECULAR STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA**

The infrared absorption spectrum of a molecule is highly characteristic and often has been referred to as a molecular fingerprint. The spectrum thus be used for molecular identification. Because the absorption of radiation at various infrared frequencies is quantitatively related to the number of absorbing molecules in a system quantitative analysis is also possible.

The usefulness of infrared absorption spectroscopy for the study of chemical analysis was recognized long ago in 1890. In the early 1900, the American physicist W. W. Coblentz determined the infrared spectra of hundreds of substances and clearly demonstrated the potential value of such spectra. Unfortunately, the instrument used at that time was a cumbersome and necessarily homemade one that few physicists and chemists were attracted by. Coblentz's work only after the development of commercial instruments for amplification and recording of continuous spectra did spectroscopy become the mode of the technique apart from reflection in its measurement in the infrared spectrum field is a common thing in basic laboratory work with the Coblentz.

Instrumentation and techniques The usual r  
ng m nt f r mea ur me t of an nra ed pec  
trum : hown ch mat all in Fg 1 A ou c Q  
eds a beam of co n us n f a d radi t i  
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into quantum detector resonant detectors and heat engines or thermal detectors. The first are devices which convert a quantum of the radiation in question into a proportionate signal by some process which is sensitive to quanta of less than a certain energy (for example the mean energy of quanta emitted by a body at room temperature). Photographic emulsion, photoelectric cells and Geiger counters are examples of quantum detectors. Resonant detectors are devices that are responsive only to radiation of the frequency to which they are tuned. Heat engines act as detectors by converting the radiation into heat and using the heat to operate a device that produces a signal that is proportionate to the amount of radiant energy received.

Nonresonant detectors have yet been constructed which can be tuned to infrared frequencies. For the photoelectric infrared (see the table) quantum detectors in the form of specially sensitized photographic emulsions, photoemissive cells and particularly photoconductive cells are usable. As can be seen from Fig. 2 the responsivity of such detectors varies considerably with frequency and drops to low value at wave numbers of about 2000–3000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (3.5–5  $\mu$  in wavelength). Photoconductive detectors are known having good responsivity below 2000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (above 5  $\mu$ ) but they must be operated at or near liquid helium temperatures (<10 K).

Therefore in a large part of the infrared region heat engine detectors whose responsivity is the same to all kinds of radiation provided the radiation is converted entirely to heat in the detector are the

only generally usable kind. Examples of heat engine detectors are thermocouples and thermopiles which produce an emf when heated bolometers which change their electrical resistance when heated and pneumatic radiometers in which heat is detected by the increase in pressure of a heated gas. Because these devices are all subject to the laws of thermodynamics governing the conversion of heat into useful work (that is into a signal) their ultimate responsivity is expected to be approximately the same and thus is found to be the case. Thermal detectors operating at room temperature have a lower limit of sensitivity of the order of  $10^{-10}$  watt with response times of the order of 0.1 sec. This limit can be considerably reduced if the detector is capable of operation at low temperature.

**Propagation of infrared radiation.** The properties of various media for the transmission of infrared radiation are often quite different from those of light. For example window glass is quite opaque to  $5 \mu$  radiation whereas pure germanium crystals which do not transmit visible radiation are very transparent to this wavelength (apart from reflection losses which can be reduced by surface coatings).

The attenuation of infrared radiation by the atmosphere is of special interest. Nitrogen, oxygen and the rare gases are transparent to all infrared wavelengths but water vapor and carbon dioxide are strongly absorbing in certain regions. In the range 0.8–40  $\mu$  there is irregular absorption due mainly to water vapor with more or less open windows at about 10, 14, 16, 22 and 34–40  $\mu$ . From 4 to 8  $\mu$  water vapor and carbon dioxide together are strongly absorbing but there is an extensive window from 8 to 13.5  $\mu$ . This window is of great meteorological importance because the peak of the radiation curve of the earth falls near 10  $\mu$ . Beyond 14 out to 600  $\mu$  there is more or less continuous absorption by atmospheric water vapor arising from the rotational energy levels of this molecule.

Liquid water is rather generally opaque in the infrared above 2  $\mu$  in path length larger than 1 mm. The transmission of infrared radiation through fog is little better than that of visible light because of a combination of scattering and absorption by the water droplets. The popular misconception that fog is transparent to infrared radiation has perhaps arisen from the well advertised effectiveness of red sensitive photographic film for photography through atmospheric haze of dust particles.

[R.C.L.]

**Bibliography.** R. S. Estey, *Infrared New Uses for an Old Technique*, *Missiles and Rockets* 3(7): 107–112, 1958. G. R. Harrison, R. C. Lord and J. R. Lofthorpe, *Practical Spectroscopy*, 1948. *Infrared Physics and Technology*, *Proc. IRE* 47(9): 1413–1400, 1959. R. A. Smith, F. F. Jones and R. P. Chamberlain, *The Detection and Measurement of Infrared Radiation*, 1957.

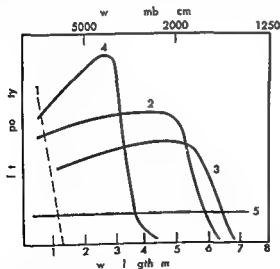


Fig. 2 Spectral sensitivity of infrared detectors. 1 Infrared sensitized photographic emulsion. 2 PbTe (lead telluride) photoconductive detector (refrigerated). 3 PbS (lead selenide) photoconductive detector (refrigerated). 4 PbS (lead selenide) photoconductive detector. 5 The model detector. Responsivity scale is the same for the various detector models with appropriate wavelength scale which detectors 1, 2, 3 and 4 become less responsive than a thermal detector as correctly shown.

## Infrared radiation (biology)

Infr red rad at ons or py th sp n between the v bl spect um and rad waves ncompa ing w vel ngths 7000-4000 000 A neuter boundary be g prec ely delimit All bod es abo m baol te zer in t mper tu m r pot ntial u ces of i fa ed rad at m th ref re ll organ m ar m nt nally xpo ed to them About 60° f the eu r ys a infra ed Water aborbs infrared radiat on tr ngly except f the band of transpa ncy between 800 d 14000 A Suce p ot opla m nt much wat r u ab orbs nfared d at eadly A la ge a mal ab orbs infrar d ad at n at t s r f ce only the p fr m 7800 t 14000 A pe trating as far as th bl od soels S INFRARED RADIATION

While m y subta ces and even t u l c t ly abor b frared r y and e m ght the e f e pot late f t ffects f the e r d iat n m n h e been un q ocaly dem nstr ted e c pt po ibly njun t on w th x r y The r a o is perh p be au e q anta f nfr red r d t n do n t excite m e g y t tes n m lecul s oth r than thos e c ted by cond t d he t S e XRAY(S) PHYSICAL NATURE OF

The e ent l bi log al flect of i fared r y s d pnd p marly po the r e i tempe t re p od ed f ll w g the ab o p t on wh h nt rn e e th rate f b l g cal c t u s n p r p t t the tempe t re hange B ue of the p m e of nfra d u light rg m ash w many d pti at d ip te s a d th h at The tempe t r f a l rg a mal plant may r se temp arly b t th heat i d ip ted by tr p t n th pl t and by pe pr at n n th n m f s bme ged n m l and plant a p tected by the wat the tempe ture h nge of wh h d p e d po the he t ap ac ty f the par t l body f wate

Test m t f b l g al m t erial w th i f red ad t (800-11500 A) the befor r f r s a t atment e as th a g me t m h m m du ed b the y n t e s f pla t a d a m l tested Th w y n wh h the i f ed r d t n d th r u kn w b t a m pa all m t f e du ted he t doe t ha e th m flect

Th med l ma mak f fr ed d t t t p an t an bu t pe pher l scul d e s e s t i t m l p nd m y th pan f h h h at g g e s r l e f p bably b e a f and lat f periph r l el F th p r p n gl w l d t a e g n r ally e r n pl ed t t f e m p p o e s t m o n e t t g d t (700-14000 A) obta n ble f m d e s t m e s e p f ble to th gl w f t m l t u l t d r p n th t ues s B u r y Th r t t r r r [a c G t] B H e p h y O C l e M d l P h s s l 1914 A H l d (ed) R d n B l f 11 194

## Infrared spectroscopy

Th tudy f the p opert es of mat r al y tems by m ans of the r nt ract on w th i fared radiat n d p r ed nto a pectum (se INFRARED RADIATION) Th infra ed region is valuable for m dy of the str ture of matt r beca m the natural v bra t n al fr quencies of atom in m lecul es an f crys tal fall in the nfared ra ge Some mous m lecul es alo t m rotat n al fr quencies in the far inf ar d range a d certain fr quencie corre pond ng t energy le els f electr ns in olids and large molecules e rre-p o d t th e of the n ar i f r ed F r a d t l d d i c u i n f molecular brat n a d otation se MOLECULAR STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA

Th i fared ab orption pectum of a molecule is highly har cteristic and often ha been re f r ed t as a molecular fng r print The pectum a thus b u ed f r m lecl r r d ntific t n Be au e th ab r p t n of radiat on at a r i us in fr r d fr q en es quantitat ely related to the umbe of ab r ng molecules n y tem q anti tati e naly i s t a l o p o s bl

Th usefulness of an nfra ed ab orption pectum fo identifi at n and chem al analys s was r e g n i z d a l ng go a 1890 I the es ly 1900 th Am r an phy c t W W Coblenz determind the nfared pectra f hu d ed f ub tan e and clearly demon trated th potent al alue of uch pectra Unfortunately the i tumentat n of that d y was cumbersome and nece arily homemade th t few phy c ts and chem ts we e attra ted by Coblenz s w k Only afte the developm nt f e mmer ial el tron c de ces for ampl fies t n and e d i ng of nt n u ly n n ed pectum was ext n e m de f the techn q Apart fom refi me t s st m nt t ion th nfared pe tra f mol ul s e obta n d tod y n ba lly the ame wa i t u ed by Coble tz

Instrumentation and techniques Th al a an m nt f r measu em nt of an infrar d pectum i shown hem t c ll in F l A ou Q end be m f c ntinu us infrar d radiat on t a sph r l a l c nde g m r r r C which passes th l i am th gh S th mple t be t u ed c me f th inf red frequen e n th beam aborbed tro gl some w akly The educed b m pa es n and e m s t a f u at th entra ce lit of th r on l m t r W Th latte is an i fared p c t r m t er wh h d per e the radi i n nt a p c t r m One f q e c y t t m e appears at the ext slit f m f m wh ch th ad at of that f qu ncy p e d b a t ble pt al tem to th detect T The det t f a th m pl o ther det ) c n e r t the r d t energy into an elect al signal wh ch i amplified ele tron lly t d nd rec d d by a char t r c R R

An f a ed p t r m s a cord of ten ty of f u d r d at on as a funct n f frequen y o wa le gth To p od ce u h a reco d th ch r r r ord d r i y nch r n r z w th th dis



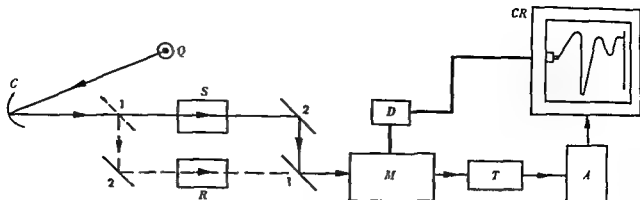


Fig 1 Diagram of a recording infrared spectrometer

persing system of the monochromator  $M$  by some common driving mechanism  $D$ . In this way a given position on the chart corresponds directly to a given frequency setting of  $M$  at which setting radiation of that frequency is emerging from  $M$ .

For many basic reasons—atmospheric absorption variation of source intensity with frequency changing dispersion in the spectrometer and the like—the electrical output of the detector would not be constant even if the sample  $S$  were completely transparent. To correct for these variations it is necessary to determine two spectra: one with the sample  $S$  in the beam and one with  $S$  removed from the beam. The absorption of  $S$  as a function of frequency can then be computed from these two spectra. The individual spectra on which the computation is based are called single-beam spectra.

The computation is laborious, time-consuming and potentially unreliable because of changes in the entire system between the two determinations of spectra. The difficulties are avoided if a second optical path, shown in dotted lines in Fig 1, is introduced. The second optical path, called the reference beam, is made as nearly like the first as possible except for the absence of the sample. In fact, the reference beam may contain an absorption cell  $R$  which differs from  $S$  only in the absence of the sample itself. For instance, if the sample  $S$  were in solution,  $R$  would contain the same amount of solute as  $S$ .

The operation of the double-beam spectrometer often called a spectrophotometer consists of a rapid switching of the beam (say 10 times per second) back and forth between  $S$  and  $R$  by alternately placing plane mirrors 1 and 1' in the optical system. The identical mirrors 2 and 2' are permanently placed. The spectrum is scanned continuously as for single-beam operation, but the beams through  $S$  and  $R$  are compared 10 times per second and the chart records the energy passing through  $S$  relative to that through  $R$ . In this way the variations mentioned cancel out.

**Typical spectra** Typical infrared spectra plotted automatically as percentage transmission of the sample on a linear frequency scale (wave number in  $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ) are shown in Fig 2. Samples of gases, liquids and solids can be readily measured. Techniques for high and low temperature of sample

and for small samples (down to about 1 mg or less in special cases) are in common use.

Per cent transmission  $T$ , the quantity usually plotted by commercial instruments, is defined as

$$T = 100 I / I_0$$

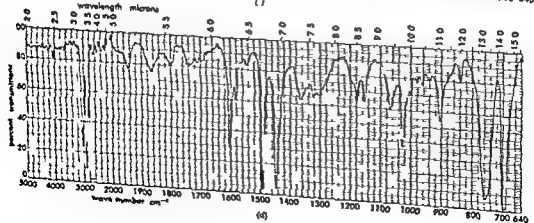
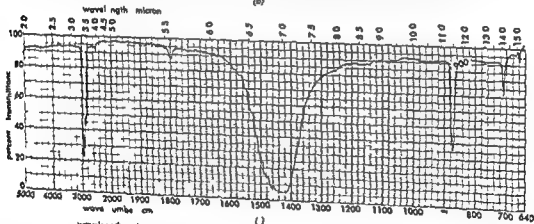
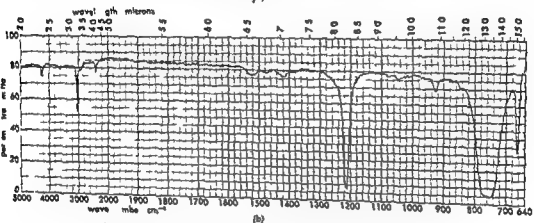
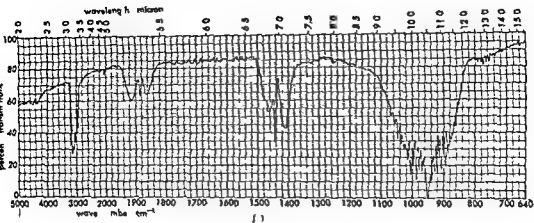
Here  $I_0$  is the intensity of infrared radiation of frequency  $\nu$  entering the sample and  $I$  is the intensity of the same radiation after passing through the sample. The per cent transmission  $T$  at frequency  $\nu$  is different in principle at different values of  $A$ . A quantity of fundamental importance, the absorbance  $A$ , is

$$A = \log(I_0 / I) = -\log(T / 100)$$

The absorbance  $A$  is proportional to the number of absorbing molecules and by evaluating the proportionality constant at frequency  $\nu$  for a given kind of molecule in a particular system, the number of such molecules in other systems of the same kind may be measured quantitatively.

**Applications** An infrared spectrum consists of a plot of  $T$  or  $A$  as a function of (or of wave length  $\lambda$ ). The basic information provided by the spectrum is a set of values at which the absorbance is absorbing strongly, that is, at which  $T$  is a minimum (Fig 2) or  $A$  is a maximum. These frequencies of maximum absorption usually correspond to the actual vibrational frequencies of the absorbing molecules or to some arithmetical combination of such vibrational frequencies. If the molecules are in the vapor phase, absorption maxima

Fig 2 Typical infrared spectra recorded automatically. Not complete scale of left portion of absorbance (a) Spectrum of methyl alcohol (b) Spectrum of liquid chloroform (c) Spectrum of powdered crystalline calcium carbonate. Powder was up to 1000  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (d) Spectrum of CH<sub>3</sub>COOH (e) Spectrum of high polymer (polyethylene). Details show why frequency scale is sometimes used in recording spectra.



may also be observed at frequencies which are combinations of frequencies of molecular rotation and vibration. The qualitative usefulness of an infrared spectrum lies in the fact that the set of observed vibrational frequencies characterizes the absorbing molecule.

**Qualitative chemical analysis.** Infrared spectra can be used for the following purposes:

1 To identify pure chemical compounds by comparison of the spectrum of an unknown with previously recorded spectra of pure compounds. Catalogs of spectra are available and in addition there are practical methods for storing the information in the spectra on punched cards which can then be used for fast comparison of unknown and known spectra.

2 To identify the constituents of simple mixtures when the spectra of the possible constituents are known.

3 To show the presence of a group of atoms as so called functional group in a molecule of unknown or doubtful structure. It has been known since the 1890 that certain groups of atoms—for example a methyl group ( $\text{CH}_3$ ), a carbonyl group ( $\text{CO}$ ), a nitrate ion ( $\text{NO}_3^-$ )—have characteristic absorption frequencies that are relatively independent of the rest of the molecule or crystal in which the group occurs. Literally hundreds of such group frequencies are known.

**Quantitative chemical analysis.** There is a quantitative relationship between absorbance and the number of absorbing molecules; thus the quantitative analysis of mixtures by infrared means is feasible. It is also possible to determine how much of a functional group is present in a mixture or in an impure substance though limitations are set on this procedure by variations in functional group absorbance. The infrared method is not particularly sensitive; the ultimate limit in detection and measurement of minor constituents being in the range 0.1–1.0% except in unusually favorable cases. Precision of measurement is often as good as 1% of the quantity being measured but may be considerably worse. Infrared methods are especially useful in determination of isomeric substances and in measurement of constituents of a chemical equilibrium.

**Determination of molecular structure.** Structures of molecules can be determined to varying degrees of refinement from infrared spectra. If only a few independent parameters (interatomic distances and bond angles) are required to specify the structure as is the case with a small symmetrical molecule these can be evaluated from the moments of inertia of the molecule which can in turn be measured from rotational frequencies usually observed as fine structure in a vibrational absorption. The structural parameters of carbon dioxide, methane, ethylene (see Fig. 2a) and ethane for example have been evaluated with high precision from their infrared spectra.

If the number of parameters is too large to be determined in this way it may nevertheless be pos-

sible to draw conclusions about the molecules despite without measuring its size. The number of vibrational frequencies which appear in the infrared spectrum is related to the molecular symmetry and it is often possible to infer the symmetry from the observed spectrum. Such inferences are more reliable if they are based on combined data from both infrared and Raman spectra. See RAMAN EFFECT.

It is still possible to say something about the structure of large molecules of little or no symmetry from their spectra if one is content with a statement about the presence or absence of various functional groups. The organic chemist often finds such statements very valuable. The nature of functional groups in the molecules of high polymers or of natural products such as the steroids can be determined from their infrared spectra and this permits information about their structure to be obtained.

**Study of the solid state.** The infrared spectra of solids give information about modes of vibration of crystal lattices about hydrogen bond vibrations in crystals held together by such bonds and about electronic energy levels in semiconductor and superconductors. Hence infrared spectrometers are often used by solid state physicists and increased use of infrared method in this field can be expected especially as techniques for the spectral region 10–200  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  become more widely available. [R.C.L.]

**See SPECTROSCOPY.**  
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## Inhibitor (chemical)

A substance which is capable of stopping or retarding a chemical reaction. To be technically useful such compounds must be effective in low concentrations usually under 1%. The type of reaction which is most easily inhibited is the free radical chain reaction. The study of inhibitor action is often used as a diagnostic test for free radical chain character of a reaction. Vinyl polymerization and autoxidation are two important examples of the class. Another reaction type for which inhibitors have been found is corrosion, particularly in aqueous system. The economic importance of corrosion inhibitors can scarcely be overestimated. An understanding of inhibitor action depends on an understanding of the process which are to be interrupted.

**Inhibition of vinyl polymerization.** The type of inhibitor action must be considered in terms of the accepted mechanism for the polymerization process which may be summarized as



**Inhibition of corrosion** Metallic corrosion in conducting media is electrochemical in nature. Local electrolytic cells are set up because of the presence of impurities, crystal lattice imperfections or strains within the metal surface. The result is dissolution of the metal from the anodic regions. Corrosion inhibitors now in use may operate at the anodes or the cathodes or provide physical protection over the entire surface.

**Anodic inhibitors** These are mild oxidants which reduce the open circuit potential difference between local anodes and cathodes and increase the polarization of the former. Sodium chromate and sodium nitrite are most commonly used. The former is used in air conditioners, refrigeration systems, automobile radiators, power plant condensers and similar equipment. Sodium nitrite finds special use in the protection of petroleum pipelines. It is effective even on rusty mild steel. An extension of the nitrite type is the use of nitrite salts of secondary amines as vapor phase inhibitors. The inclusion of a salt such as dicyclohexyl ammonium nitrite with a packaged steel object provides effective protection against corrosion.

**Cathodic inhibitors** Compounds such as calcium bicarbonate and sodium phosphate in an aqueous medium deposit films on metal surfaces which provide physical protection against corrosive attack.

**Organic inhibitors** These are usually long chain aliphatic acids and the soaps which are derived from them. Adsorption of these compounds on metal surfaces gives a hydrophobic film which protects the metal from corrosion by many agents. As little as 0.1% of palmitic acid, for example, is sufficient to protect mild steel from attack by nitric acid. See ANTIOXIDANT CATALYSIS; CORROSION; FREE RADICAL POLYMERIZATION. [F.H.S.]

## Ink

A substance used for writing, marking, drawing and printing which is transferred by several methods to a wide variety of surfaces such as metal, fabrics, wood, glass or plastics. Inks consist of a vehicle or carrying agent and a colorant that is evenly dispersed throughout the vehicle. In the United States inks are produced to the value of \$300,000,000 annually.

**Writing inks** Writing inks are known to have been used as early as 2000 B.C. For many years they were made from tannins and galls obtained from bark or nuts but with the spread of literacy their varieties increased. Even inks used for typewriter ribbons may be considered as a special form

for writing. Modern writing inks are composed chiefly of aqueous solutions supplemented with gums or glues and dye colorants to which small quantities of pigments may be added. The writing ink industry is distinct from other classes of ink manufacture.

In the modern office duplicating machines are in common use. Technically they are not writing machines yet they do use ink specially suited for each particular class of machine. Proper inks are usually supplied by the maker or distributor of the machines.

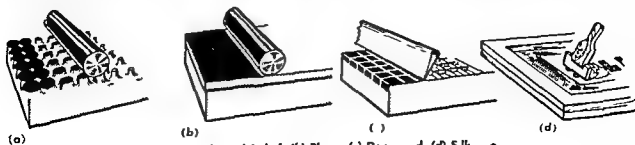
**Marking inks** These are the successors of many efforts to make his mark with any medium available. In shipping departments of industry and elsewhere inks are used with rubber stamp, pencils, or special brushes to mark a great variety of surfaces of wood, metal and fabric. There are many varieties from liquid to solid which may be composed of a water, alcohol, oil or wax vehicle with either dye or pigment colorants.

**Printing inks** Printing inks are used on printing machines from the small job press to large high speed multicolor presses which produce printed matter in great volume and variety with four printing systems to transfer thousands of types of ink onto hundreds of different types of surfaces.

For instance, a book may be bound in cloth cover using a bookbinder's ink printed on a planar press; it may have illustrations printed with process inks on a cylinder press and bound with the text pages or on a slip cover. The text or reading matter may be a book class of paper and run on a rotary press with a book ink. Such combinations are not unusual. Inks may be labeled with different names designating either the class of ink or the end use.

There are four distinct printing systems for transferring ink to paper or other surfaces: (1) letter press or relief printing in which the type or illustrations are above the surface to receive the ink from distributing rollers; (2) lithography in which ink is transferred from a level or plane surface; (3) intaglio in which ink is transferred from a depressed surface (includes rotogravure, gravure, copperplate printing, steel die, embossing and metal etchings); and (4) silk screen in which a roller squeezes ink through a piece of silk stretched on a frame to paper or card underneath the frame (Fig. 1). See PRINTING PLATE.

Each system requires different inks for different presses and papers, but the printing ink industry is generally a custom prescription one. This re-



(a) Relief (b) Planographic (c) Depressure (d) Silk screen

qu res a formula made f r th parti ular tra sfer  
methods v hicles adapted f r press operatio nd  
pigm t color nt co dng to th ir end u e The  
formula s refu lly reco d d by we ght of the s  
gred ent a d i g = number R peat rder for  
add t on l or lat r su mu t be exa t the mall  
est tolera = espe ally for u n label and pack  
ag p nt ng

Printing ink vehicles The p ntng ink form la  
f r the eh cle w ll be pr pared to suit th follow  
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th cla nd speed of the press (3) th dry ng  
process r q i ed (x dat o penetrat on evapora  
t on o g lat on o p p t on) (4) the cla  
nd t x u e of th u f e e to be printed (5) the  
ad t f the gment r q i ed d (6) any pe  
i f f net o f the p nt ed m tte which may p  
pl i both eh cle and p gment.

The m i eh les sed are m i e al o l h at  
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rnt fies by the add t on f d r n esuns, gums  
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i h h de A xib l ty f th k f lm V r n h  
i gred ent may b prep ed by d s l ng ook  
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g th thr ough a nk mill Sp c al te e par  
h ed by the km ke f m t de upph s

Colorants Th nk flm s very thin (bo t  
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w ll ch nge i lo pp a n when sed n d f  
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h t n e s f th h t

Fine s manu fct u a m pl ated ch m l  
nd t y wh l s ppl es mo i p nt gink color  
i R th g n i and rgan e p g m n t a e  
sed p g m n t a f a t i o w ll d f f r i n  
m f th toll w ng w y p a t c l z e wetta  
b l i n p e e f g r t y p a t y o l o t rength dry  
i g m t s d f e t h l e d e a f e t n e t t  
t k f m l ght h t alkai a d g r ees fat a d  
w s

ll k p g m n t bon h l a k nd t g  
t d n t y blue s o l r t m b ed  
Am g th wh t p gment t t a m d de s  
nd t h u k a d b l e c h e al m na hy  
d t s s d r e ad k i n d f e  
t n t r n

Th sam f m l y f p g m t m y be prod eed  
t e s l h de Chrom y ll w run l m p m  
eow n th g m d t g l d e n th red ide  
Ch f f m l e s ed l th l i l d e s t u g  
t r e m l l d t e y ll w ch m a Ha a ben  
f h l i n l i u M l r r e f l x p l th loey a  
p e a d g e e n d p h loey t m i e  
t R w d l l d p h l e s phthaloy n ne  
m s r f red d t t u

All pigment must be thoroughly d per d and  
r finely m ll d on roller mill colloid mill or  
h ll mills to pre ent reaggglomerat on See Dry  
Pigment

Special inks New inks are u ed f r printing on  
u w spr nt pape s New black for met op litan  
dailies i a thin l iqu d ink f eque tly del e d  
by tank truck and pumped nto storage tank  
f om wh h it i pumped to the p e s For the  
we kly newspaper with smaller pres es a l ghtly  
th cker on i tency s u ed th s m y be del eed  
in kts o drums Blacks are made with mineral  
il and carbon black a d dry by p n e t r a t on

The e of new pape col s h s i c e a d v e r y  
s p dly a t end wh ch w ll c ntinue l nks u d re  
n med ru of pres (ROP) olo Comic colors  
de iga te inks u ed t print the com plements  
of new paper a well as comic booklets usually  
u spec al pres es Their properties are milar to  
tho e f news black

Bookbinder s ink used f r p nt ng cloth r  
pl st book cov r re heavy i cou inks made  
fr m l i seed o synthet c vartu hes Th y dry by  
oxidation

Co er nks are the opaque i ks u ed for p r t ng  
o colo d p ers

Th c l o r s u ed fo three a four olor illust a  
to s known as pr cess t ka may be used on all  
p ntng y tems. Col s select d are r d yellow  
and blue which when p ope ly run pp a to re  
produ e th ture chromatic spectr m

Metallic nks ar c m p ed f a spec l a n i h  
nto which a e m ed f l y flaked l m um pow  
d s to represe t s l e a d c m b n a t o n s f h s  
a d p p r s h ke to e m b l g l d

He t set inks nam d for a dry ng method are  
e m p o ed f p e c al fact s of mineral l with  
synthet c res a wh ch r main stable at r m t m  
pe atu e but evap rate r pudly wh n run over a  
he t ng nt t l e d to the press at temperatu es  
of about 1500 F They are s ted for large editi ns  
f m g a z s a d cat a l g

M l t u e et ink d p nd on an the drying p o c  
e They h v eh les of gly ols and alcohol solu  
ll resin which pr p t e the p gment con  
t t w m o i s t u r The r h i e f u e s on wrapp ngs  
a d packages whe f ed m f om dry g o d r i  
m p o r t a n t

Fl x o g a p h e n k (f r m l y nam e d a l i e inks)  
ed n p e l p e s e w th rubber printing  
plates They a e b ng ed n r s ngly e p e c lly  
f p e k g w apping u h a f o l t a p a r t  
pl st film r p p r b g m a h n e s Th y are  
omp ed of l p h l h l l v o t h e o l a t i l e o l  
e n t s a d n o w e n t a n p g m e n t c l a t They are  
l iqu d s n tency and dry by ev p u o n

M l g n u n k a e a n e w t y p of k n o w r e  
t g a t t e n f u e o n o r t n g w th el c t r o n i c  
eq p m e t

Dithographic inks I th graphy was in nt ed by  
Al i Se i l d in the e ghteenth ce tury a d h a  
h w n g r e a t p g e s n e 1900 be a e of the m  
t o d u c t u f the t r y l l t p e and the appl  
a t i n of pho g r a p h y a t h m l e

system has great versatility for use on financial printing such as stock certificates, bonds and checks. It is used for advertising matter, displays, billboards, fine art reproduction, greeting cards, packages and metal decorating. The inks used are of heavy viscosity, made chiefly from linseed oil varnishes or combination of mineral or other oils with synthetic resins and pigments that are resistant to water. They dry mostly by oxidation. In the tin decorating industry for containers and signs the drying process is speeded up by the application of heat and the ink film requires greater flexibility.

Offset inks are lithographic inks used on a press which transfers the ink first to a rubber blanket and then to the printing surface.

Dry offset is a relief variant of the offset system. The plate used is given an etch which produces a slightly raised surface. The ink is run on an offset press without water. This process is used frequently on check backgrounds or sales slips for protective purposes against the use of ink erasers or erasers.

**Intaglio inks.** Intaglio is the printing system in which the image is depressed below the surface. There are four classes: rotogravure, gravure, die stamping and copperplate. Rotogravure is used extensively for newspaper supplements, catalogs and packaging.

Rotogravure inks are liquids that are filled into tiny wells (as many as 40,000 per square inch) etched on a plate or cylinder. A scraper blade removes the surplus ink from the surface and the ink is transferred to the paper, drying by evaporation. The vehicles are chiefly hydrocarbon solvent and alcohol.

Copperplate inks and die stamping inks used for personal and business stationery are buttery pastes in consistency. Both require special varnish properties for their use. Because the plates are cut much deeper, the film of ink transferred is much thicker.

**Silk screen system.** The silk screen process is well adapted for display card advertising but has

many other uses. When fluorescent pigments are used brilliant colors are obtained. The process is slow but mechanization is increasing for longer runs. A piece of silk is stretched onto a frame. The nonprinting areas are blocked out and the ink is squeezed through the silk with a roller to the paper or card underneath. The inks are of buttery consistency with a film of good thickness which dries by oxidation.

**Manufacture.** Printing ink manufacturers maintain their own laboratories staffed by chemists and color matcher for formula development, production control and testing. One of the instruments for testing the tackiness of ink for pre-qualities is the Inkometer (Fig. 2).

A Printing Ink Research Bureau is operated at Lehigh University, Bethlehem, Pa., and is supported by the National Association of Printing Ink Makers, New York. See PRINTING [C.R.C.]

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## Inland waterways transportation

Nearly 90% of the national intercity freight tonnage moves over the 29,000 miles of navigable inland waterways in the United States. This system of natural and improved rivers and man-made canals is the most extensive, highly developed and efficient in the world. The equipment used in the towing trade is modern, specialized, highly refined and includes powerful towboats, barges of all sorts and the latest in navigational aid. The large tonnages travel over the Midwestern network of river, but substantial volumes of bulk cargo also move in the East and Far West.

Generally speaking, inland waterways transportation is lower in cost than any other mode of transportation except pipeline.

Many American methods of large volume towing are now being practiced in other countries where water transport always of key importance had never handled such great quantities of cargo with such power and labor saving marine equipment.

**Commodities moved.** Coal, petroleum products and grain are the principal commodities of the American inland waterways system, but many other products are also moved on the river in large quantities. Most important among the newer cargoes are a vast variety of chemicals moving in specially designed tank barges. This increase in chemical tonnage has taken up much of the slack created by the withdrawal of many petroleum products from pipeline for transportation.

Small lots of cargo less than a large load comprise only a small portion of the tonnage moved, although several towing concerns in the

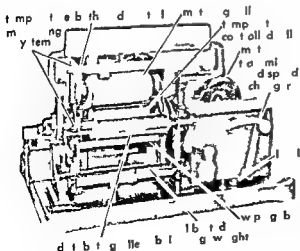


Fig. 2. A. Inkometer. (The McGraw-Hill Book Co.)



Fig 1 Ford 18 p l U t d S t the world  
m i p w e r i s w b 1 The b o t w s b u l t b y t h S t  
l S h p b l d g & S t e l C d p w d b y  
f d f g d f p g i l f 8500 hp

East part ula ly dev te a great ports n of th  
b n i packaged bulk shipme t

The i d a d r e p r g e l a d u s in the ne h  
borhood f 1200 t n u a b a g 195 ft l n g b y  
35 ft w i d w t h l r d e d a f t 19 ft The b a g e s  
e d g n e d to fit th e e l n g b y th e w d e i a  
t a n d 600-ft b y 110-ft r i y l o c k

O t h M d w e t r n s y t e m o f r s m a n y s h  
b g e s a e l a b e d t g t h r i n t h g t w s p h d  
l y h l t y d e l t w h o a t s T h m o t p o w r f l t o w  
b o t f l a t n 199 w t h 8500-hp F d e r a l B r g e  
L a e s l n M y U n i d S t a t ( F g 1 ) w l h e a  
h e 40 m r l a d d b r g e o n the p e n t  
t l l o M p p h t w e e n S t L u a d  
N w O l n a t p e d o e r 7 m p h S u h a  
t w m g h t i e m e t h 7 e s b e i t h r d  
f m i l l g e r v m h l g h t a 1000 a i l  
a d a b o u t f u r a e r a g o c n f r e g h t e r  
a d y t m s t h r o u g h a a r r o w d m e t r e s  
d g 9-ft d e p h a n 124 f r a d a y m a n  
k d f t h ( F g 2 )

In th Ea t and Fa W t m a l l r l o a d a r e  
q e d l e a u l d r e t p e a n g n d t n  
M o s t i t h a e s p e c i a l l y n p n w a t e  
m o s t p l l w n g n w l h e o t n l

tugboat pulls one barge or a string of ba ge on  
t r o n g l a w = S m e p u h t o w i n g i s u e d i n the  
E a t ( o n the N w Y r k S t t B a r g e C a n a l a n d t h e  
A t l a n t i c I n t r c o a t a l W a t e r w a y f o r e x a m p l e ) b u t  
u s u a l l y i t m o v e s o l y o n e b r g a t a t i m e b e a u e  
o f s e e l o c k a n d c h a n n e l l i m i t a t i o n s H a w e r t w  
n g i s t r d i t o n a l t h o g h t h e w l d a n d o n l y  
i n the 190 d d o t h r n a t i o n ( n a t i a l l y F r a n c e  
G m y d V e n u e l ) b e g i n u s i n g the m o r e e f  
f i c i e n t p s h t o w n g m e t h o d o n a l i m i t e d b u t h i g h l  
u l l b a s i s

Great Lakes By C a t G u a d d e f i n i t n C e t  
L a k e s s h i p p i n g i s n t a f r m o f i n l a n d w a t e r w a y s  
t a p o t t n H o w e r the t n n g e m v e d o e r  
t h L a k e s y e t m s a l m e q u l t o the t o t a l  
m o e d n the l a n d w a t e w a y M o t G r e t L a k e s  
t n n a g e i s o f o e m v e d i n l a r g e ( u p t o  
700-ft ) f e a t h e F r a d d i t o n a l i n f o r m a t i o n s e e  
S H I P M E R C H A N T

Navigation projects The i n l a n d w a t e r w a y s o f  
t h U n i t e d S t a t e s r e m a i n e d m s p e c i f i e d  
d p t h b y t h U S A r m y C o r p s o f E n g n e e r s T h e  
C o p s a l o e x e c e s s p r v i r y a t h o t y o e r  
n e w r i v e r c o n s t u t i o n p r o j e c t s f e c a l y e a r 1959  
C o n g e s a p p r i a t e d o e \$ 800 000 000 f o r i e  
n d h a b o s i m p o v e m t i n d f o r r e c u r r i n g w a t e r  
w y s m a t e a n = T h i s u m w a s a l l o t t e d n o t o n l y  
f o m m e c i l n a g t r o n b u t a l s o f o r f l o o d c o n t r o l  
u r r g a n h y d o e l e c t c p o w e r p r o j e c t s o n  
e r v t o n d e c e t n l f a t n g

The m a j o w a t e r w a y p r o j e c t o f t h F e d e r a l  
g o e r n m e t i n o l e the e a l z a t i o n o f e x i s t i n g  
i e T h e u g h s e o f d a m s t h p r o c e  
e r a t e s s l c k w a t e r p o o l a l o n g a e r w h h e  
t h b e e a s i l y n a s t e d m a i n t a i n e d t o p e  
d e p t h s a d n t o l l d t e l m i n a t e f l o o d h a z a r d  
T h b g e t p r o j e c t s n d r w a y i n 19 m e r a s  
f l l o w

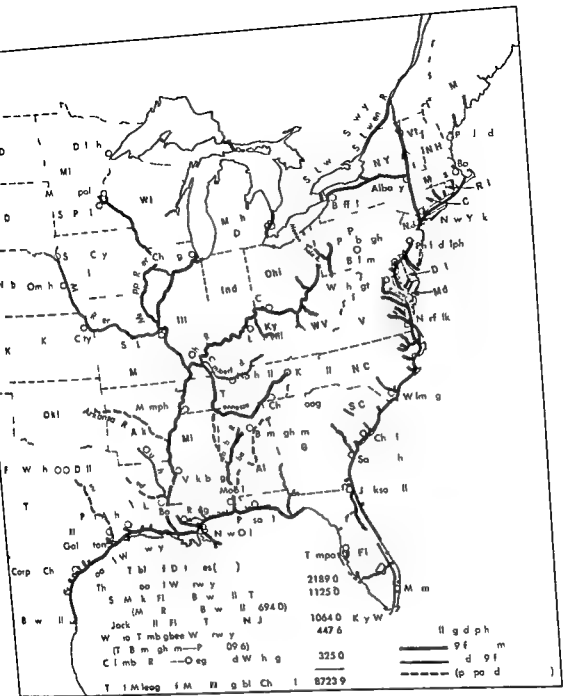
1 The O h i o R i r w h e e the e x i s t i n g 49 d m y  
w e t o b r e p l a c e d w i t h 19 h i g h d a m a n d t h



Fig 2 F d l B a r g l e U t d S t h o w n S t l p h g s w o f 42 b g T h h u g t w  
n o r t h f C h e M l b d p t h e M p p l R e t w p p m o t b y 7 1 / 2 a







th ill d St t (Am W t r w y Op t i l )

(1) th mm r r r g l t e d by the  
l i t t Comm e Comm d w t h p b  
l h e d t e s ( i t h g l t e d e m p t r i e  
l m t e d t r r r y g l y b l k g o e s f  
c o t h l p k g b l e l h e l b l e a t e  
( g l d e s ) a d (3) t h p a t e a r  
t w o r d o p e t e d by the comp y w h o e  
f g h t e d

Tonnage Th m t f g m d 1957  
391,289,000 t f t t l f 114,561,000,000  
t m l e s E t m t e s f 1958 a r l g h t l y h g h e  
S C t D m R i x t e e r i s [ u w ]

## Inoculation

Th p r e s f t o d c i g a m o o r g m o s u  
n o n o f m o o g a i m i t l t m d m  
The med m may be (1) s o l t n f n t n t r  
q e d by t h o g s m i t f n t t  
p l a g a r (2) l l p n ( t e c u l t u e )  
(3) e m b r y t e d u l t (4) m a l s f  
m p l r a t , m o u e g u a p g h m t e r m o k y  
b r d s , o h m n b g W h e n m l a r e u s e d t h  
g r p o e a l l y t h a t t f t h m m u o l o g  
i l d f e g t t h e o r g a m T h i s f o r m

locks to be increased from 600 ft to 1200 ft in length

2 The Columbia and Snake rivers which when development is completed will be navigable to Lewiston Idaho and studded with huge multipurpose dams

3 The Missouri River which was to be fully canalized and raised from a 5 ft minimum depth to the standard Midwestern 9 ft minimum depth

4 The Illinois Waterway where locks were to be made two way to ease current congestion and accommodate additional traffic generated by the opening of the St Lawrence Seaway

5 The Warrior Tombigbee Waterway in Alabama where lock capacity was to be increased

6 The Trinity River in Texas which was to be canalized to create a 9 ft channel from the Gulf Intracoastal Canal as far inland as the Dallas area

The renaissance of the inland waterways as the heavy haulers of industry is a fairly recent phenomenon in American history. In the early part of the twentieth century river traffic was almost eliminated by railroad competition. However in the 1920s as government canalization programs progressed and new machinery (particularly diesel engines) and new equipment found their place on riverboats the industry revived and has been growing in importance ever since (see Fig 3)

**Machinery and equipment** Prime mover of the inland waterway boats is the marine diesel engine equipped with a reverse reduction gear. This gear enables the diesel to operate at maximum high rpm efficiency while turning the propeller at its far slower but most efficient speed. See MARINE ENGINE

The riverboats of the Midwest are basically rectangular in shape some as long as 200 ft and are characterized by heavy pushing knees (vertical pushing braces) forward and propellers encased in Kort nozzles aft. The Kort nozzle basically a funnel like cylinder surrounding the propeller can increase the propeller thrust by as much as 40% in certain cases. See PROPELLER MARINE

Towing in Eastern and Far Western waters is handled largely by conventional tugboats smaller in length and beam than the riverboats and built with stem type bows, molded hulls and rounded sterns.

River barges fall into three categories—open hopper covered hopper and tank barges. They are designed respectively to handle weather resistant hard good, vulnerable cargo and liquid products.

Originally almost all barges were designed with a rake (overhang) fore and aft and this is still the most efficient design when barges are towed singly. However as large fleeted movement of barges became common on the rivers many new barges were constructed as integrated or semi-integrated vessels. These are designed for high towing efficiency in tows of many barges. An integrated tow will have one lead raked barge with a square stern a number of square law and square stern barges and finally a trailing barge with a raked stern. This type of

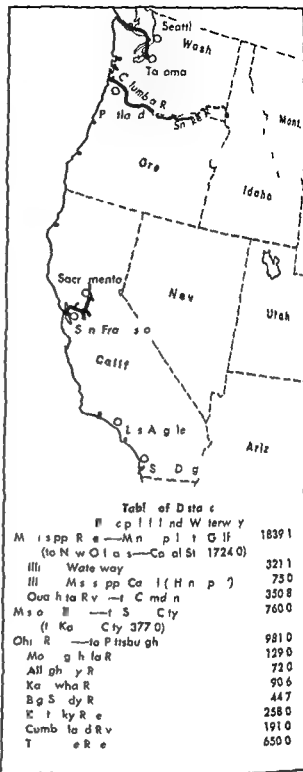


Fig 3 Commonly navigable inland waterways of

today presents a single underwater surface like a single complete vessel and towing speeds can be proportionately higher. However barges with two square ends are extremely unwieldy if it becomes necessary for them to be towed individually.

A semi-integrated tow is composed of single raked barge arranged square-end to square end. This causes comparatively few breaks in underwater continuity of the hulls and yet enables the barges to be towed singly when necessary.

**Types of carriers** Cargo is moved along the American waterway by three types of water car-

ph ru il on and rel ted = m pound and an array { vacuum } es l. frequently th hallm rk of a labo story f r synth t e mo gan e chem try

**Organometallic compounds** Metalloorganic compound n itute a borde l ne area of tudy ly g bet een s rg nic and orga chema try U til 1900 although a con d r bl number of metallo-rgan e compou d wa known th we e all de- ed fr m m tal that bel ng t the prnc pal fam il es n th period table no stable de i ati s of obg up m tal r i an t n m tals had been i e- pared despite m ny ttempt al w a large n mbe- f met lloorgan e c mpo nds f th t an m n nd bgr up el me t with cy f p nt d e e (CH) a d w th arom at c hydroca bons u h m benzene (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>) h been s n the zed B ca th c m pou d fo m nt e ti g d i ati es with carbon m x d CO and unde go numero ther re c t c, and beca the ore ten e of th se c mpo nd poses inte ng th ore al p obl m many s ves- t gat m e e n earned the n elv s with this fild fre ea ch li a be nti ipated that th a ea will bec me f e e g ate igni ca e m th mo g n e ch m try f th future S e ORGANOMETAL- lic compound

**Solid state chemistry** The el ment and c m po nds th t f r m the subject matter of = rg n c h m try ex h b ery wide a g f phy cal p r t e e and un the g m t irom bl m th b- tan e of l west m l ng and bo l ng p i t to metal x des a b des a d t d i wh ch a mo the most fra t ry high melt ng ub tanc kn Th t dy f ld tate r a t o d e c mpo nds ha a med m t mportan e s = ent s a and t th r m a j r ar f i re r h w n rg n c h m try Unle g e cou c mpo unds nd m s r ga mpo nd which f ll with law of d f n t pr po t s very l ly many ld g mpo nd pr ti la ly those of th t n t n l em e t ex h b i n d i t y f mpo nt on o as t f e- re el dea g t d n to ch m try When a wld mpo nd d tes f om mple t ch met e rel t i w ll i n a e e s f i ther po t ly ha ged met l m s a n gati ely h ged a n l d e f cond n the sld f r q n il h w u f i t i pr p r t e s that t m d f n h t i f ld t i dev ces Solid hou lect f p r r e are n t n of d n l ght bel ng to th gr p a d photoelec t d m e a n t ted of n h ub ta c T n i l th m i t e s d ph ph s e ther wld e t dev ces f s d i ly a g mpo t then mate la e ld mpo und t d f n g il p a ed by solid phase r e t n h gh tempe at may be i led n th h m e f gh tempe s r h m try h y great- p l ed n e r e n t ly n nect th d p p a c f a n t h m r e m p r i t s l o f th p p a t f e l e t r i e a u f f at h gh tempe t r = rock t r y d w i t echn l g r Alth gh m y e t n b e t n t proceed m l b a g the t m p r i t e n o l th t i n t e l f adeq t

f r all p r poses and in the very rec nt p t, a n w d men io has been added by the multane- ous n e of ery h h pre ure With the equipment now availabl it i pos ble to carry out old tate r actions at tempe ature f approxm tely 2 00 C (453 F) and 700 000 atm ( $3 \times 10^4$  p i) Under these conditi ns rd ary a bon (graph t e) can be c n e r t e d i t d amo d and m e th p su e i c i ally suffice nt to d tort the electron rh tal new vari t e s f m tter can be obtained Th u t i po s ble t make a new a s ty of l e a which un h ke the u al nes rea t with hydr fluoric acid t a v r y m a k d ly reduced a c Und ub t e d l h i h p r s ure-high temp r t r h m i t r y s d e t n e d to bec me one of the mo t m p r iant ar a s of e c a ch in inorganic chem stry

F r m a y solid tate dev ce it i f the grea t mportan e to h = ery pure m t e r i a l = m a t e r i a l with just th e r e c t amount of mpu ty f r t a n t r s t i f the grea t mportan e to r- ure i l c n e t a s i g the r d e of a f w p a r t s p e f l l u o n f mpu ty s Th i c o m m o n l y a c h = e d b y a o m b n a t i n f chemical and phy al procedure including zone melt ng Th p r p a r a t o f ultra pure s = ganic c mpo nds i al i t a l in the prep ar a t i n of lumi = cent and phosph e cent mate r i a l s

**Geochemical aspects** Many f the synth e c pr e d u r e s a e d u t at high temperatures and pre ure ha c n id able m t r t i = geo chem- t r y Perhaps th s l e t organ = ch m t r y was p r a t i d n o n e c t e d r w th m n e al gy M n al y n t h e s or the p p r a t i o n of n o r g a n c o m p o u n d d e t r a l w th th o f o u n d i n n t u r e a r i n r e a g l y c o p y n g i f e a t t n o n of the n o r g a i c chem t Aot n l y i s th e of c e n t i f i c m p o r t a n i n r p l a i n g the e q u e n e of ch m i a l e a c t o n a d c o d t n s p n a b l e for the f r m a t i o n of th m i n e r a l m n a t r e but many m = l d g e m s f i n d u r i a l m p o r t a c e c n n w b e v n t h s e d s m e n t h l a g i n d u t a l s l e d a m n d u b y p p h a r e q u r t z, c o r u n d m E u t h e r h i g h t e m p r a t u r e a c t i s h y d r o t h r m a l r a t i o n e a e d i w i r a t h g h t e m p r a t u r e and p r e r e a e m p l y e d With the a d e n t of l t r a h g h p a- s a r e e q u i p m e n t i n w b e c m e f e b l e to t u d h m i l r e c t i n u n d r c o n d t i o n s p p r x m a t n g th o e m a y m l e b l o w the earth s u f S u c h s t u d m c a n r e l y b e p e t d t make a m a j o r c o n t r i b u t i n t the n d r i a d i g o f g e h m i a l p h n m e n a. See HIGH PRES URE PHENOMENA

**Nuclear technology** The de l o p m n t f n clear t e c h n o l o g y h a p r o i d e d g r e f i m p e t u s to m o g a i h e m i s t r y Th f o r t s of th n o g a n m e t h a b e e r n d p e n a b l e to the c l u l t l z a n i l n u l a e s The d c v e r y f i t h e t a n t n m l e m t n of th m u t i n d i n g l y m p o r t n t e v t n h e m t a n e h p r o i d e d h t o f p r b l m It has been n t r y to d e p l n d e t a l the chema t r y of th c t i n d e e l e m e t i o r d to d i m e n e } th e n e w e l e m = w e t o b e i n o r p o d t n d t h o p e r i o d i b l a d f r the immediate p a c t c a l p u r p o s e of

of vaccination and quite often the two terms are used interchangeably. Both constitute a means of producing an artificial but active immunity against specific organisms although the length of time given by such protection may vary widely with different organisms. See VACCINATION.

Inoculation is the natural process of acquiring protection against disease in that most persons are exposed to some organisms at times when no severe symptoms are displayed. The protective mechanisms of the body especially antibody production are stimulated by such a mild or insignificant exposure. An example of this is the discovery that the majority of adults have antibodies to poliomyelitis present despite the absence of a history of the severe or recognizable disease form.

Inoculation may also refer to the deliberate seeding of organisms into culture media and the introduction of fermenting bacteria yeasts or molds into various industrial processes that employ the chemical reactivity of the organisms. See IMMUNITY MICROBIOLOGICAL METHOD [ECST]

## Inorganic chemistry

The chemical reactions and properties of all the elements and their compounds with the exception of carbon hydrogen compounds. Inorganic chemistry is thus defined by subtraction. The chemistry of carbon hydrogen compounds forms that province of chemistry designated as organic chemistry. All the remaining elements in the periodic table fall in the domain of inorganic chemistry. The boundaries with other major disciplines in chemistry are not precisely defined however and it is often difficult to allocate a given topic to the field of inorganic chemistry or to physical chemistry. Physical chemistry may be defined as the application of quantitative and theoretical methods to chemical problems and is a methodology rather than a specific body of knowledge. Investigations into theoretical inorganic chemistry or the study of problems in inorganic chemistry by quantitative and sophisticated physical methods may be considered to be inorganic or physical chemistry quite arbitrarily. In similar fashion metalloorganic compounds may be considered as being either in the sphere of inorganic or organic chemistry. To an increasing extent the inorganic chemist concerns himself with problems that once were considered the prerogative of either physical or organic chemists and to day the inorganic chemist is frequently indistinguishable from the physical chemist.

Because inorganic chemistry concerns itself with 100 of the 102 elements in the periodic table its scope is very broad. Nevertheless some natural divisions exist and it is convenient to treat the subject under the headings of synthetic inorganic chemistry theoretical or physical inorganic chemistry and applied inorganic chemistry.

### SYNTHETIC INORGANIC CHEMISTRY

The reactivity of the elements of the periodic table varies enormously and over a much wider range

than is encountered in organic chemistry. Consequently the inorganic chemist must frequently employ unusual apparatus and techniques. The elements range from the rare gases which are completely unreactive and form no chemical compounds to the extremely reactive halogens and alkali metals. Fluorine is perhaps the most reactive element known; it forms compounds with all other elements except the rare gases. The study of the chemical behavior of fluorine and its compounds has been a major activity in inorganic chemistry in the last decade. Fluorine compounds are important in the separation of the isotopes of uranium as refrigerants anesthetics chemical warfare agents and potential rocket fuels and for many other purposes. Because of the great reactivity of fluorine and the closely related halogen fluorides special metal and plastic apparatus must be used in experimentation. Both fluorine and the important fluorine compound hydrogen fluoride attack glass and thus the most common material of construction used by chemists cannot be used.

Another element important in synthetic inorganic chemistry since World War II is boron. The hydrides of boron were first discovered some 50 years ago but it is only within recent years that the chemistry of these compounds has been clarified. The evolution of synthetic procedures in boron chemistry is an instructive example of the method of the inorganic chemist. The hydrides of boron were first obtained by reaction of a metal boride with a solution of an aqueous acid. The procedure was very difficult and tedious and it required weeks or months of labor to obtain a few cubic centimeters of the gaseous product which turned out to be the simplest boron hydride  $B_2H_6$ . Many years later it was discovered that yields could be increased substantially by passing boron trichloride and hydrogen through an electric discharge but here also the yields were very low. Under the impetus of wartime urgency chemical syntheses for the boron hydride were developed. Using the readily available compound alkali metal hydrides and boron trifluoride as starting materials boron hydrides were obtained in very good yield. In addition to diborane  $B_2H_6$  a considerable number of other boron hydrides are now known  $B_2H_6$ ,  $B_3H_8$ ,  $B_4H_{10}$ ,  $B_5H_{11}$ ,  $B_6H_{12}$ ,  $B_{10}H_{12}$  and  $B_{10}H_{14}$  and many derivatives of these have all been synthesized. Compounds that contain the borohydride group  $BH_4^-$  have been prepared and the metal borohydrides are now very important compounds. Aluminum borohydride  $Al(BH_4)_3$  is of interest as a possible high energy fuel and dimethylborane  $NABH_3$  is a widely used reducing agent. Many of the boron compounds react violently with air and water. It is necessary therefore to use special equipment in studying them and in glass vacuum systems have been developed for carrying out experiments with the gaseous boron hydrides. Vacuum line techniques are widely used in inorganic chemistry for the manipulation of volatile highly reactive compounds such as the hydrides of

phoru l c n, a d related mpounds and an array of ac m lines is frequently the hallmark of a l borat ry f r ynthetic morg e h m try

**Organometallic compounds** Metalloo g m mpo nd m n t tut a borde l n area of tudly i g bet m in rgan a d organic chem try Until 1930 alth ough a co de able number f met llo-organ c mpounds w kn wn the were all de- m ed f om metal th t bel g to the princ pal sam les the p riodic table no t ble d vati es f bg oupr metal r r it m m tals had bee p c m ed desp t m my attempts N w a large numb r f metalloo gan c comp nd of the tr ti n and s bgr p el me t with cycl pent die e (C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>) and th a omati f d r ocar bon uch a benzene (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>) have bee synthe ed Beca eth e e m pound form nterest g d r vati es with carbo m m ide CO and und rg m mer us othe r ac t and l l cau e the ext ce of th e compounds po es i nterest ng theoreti al p oblem many nves t gat rs ha e co c d them el s with this f eld f reeear h l t n be nt ip d d that th a ea will ber m f e n gr ater s gnifiance in the m r g io chem t y of th future S e ORGA OMETAL LIC COMPOUND

**Solid state chemistry** The element and m pound that form the ulje t m t r of n rgan c hem t y ex h t a ry wide r g f phy cal propert es and run the gam t f m hel um the sub tan f l we t m l g and bol g m t to m tal oxides, arides and t des which ar am ng the m t r f r a tory high m l t ng ub t a res k w Th tudy of s lid t te r ti s and c mp u d ha med p at mport m n ec m y e r and ther m l area f e e ch n rg n h m try U l k e g u c m p nds nd mot r ga omp u d whi h f l ow the law of def n te pr port ery l ely m ny s lid c mpound p r t l y th f the tr t m eleme t e h b t r b l t y f ompo t ion o a n t f re- q ntl d gn ted n t h ometry When wld mpo nd der tes f m sample s h met r i s n n t l l n t a ex ce of enth po t l e h ged m tal cau r n gat ely h rged U d r h ndu s the old f eq u l y h w n al lect r t propert es that e m d f l t f s lid t s dev t wld h o a l t t l p r p r t e s a fun t of n l t l ght bel g t h g p and phot lec t dev e e t r t ed f n ub t n e T t t h m s d h ph a ther w l l t d f r adly s e g m p t n n the m al a s lid c mp und d f n n l y pr pa ed b t d pha eac t h h m p r e s m y be t l ed the the s l s t m p r u e h m t r h greatly p an d e e n t l nly n n t n th h p p t f n s h m t r n f f f f f f r t p r t u f f t r e s f l a h g h t m p r e s n ock t r y d l t e ch l g Alth gh m y act a t l e d t p r e d m l h r g h t m r at r e t t h n t u t e l l d qu r

for all purp es and in the very re ent past a new d mension ha been added by the s multane ous n e of ery high pre ur With the qupment now available it is pos ble to carry out ol d tate reacti us at m p sture of appr ximat ly 2500 C (4532 F) a d 200 000 atm (3 x 10<sup>5</sup> p s) Under the e conditi ns ord nary carl m (graphite) an be con erted into d amond and s nce the pre sure s a tually suffi sent to d t the electron orbital new riet e of m tter can be obtained Th is it is pos ble to make a new va iety of s l ca wh ch unl ke the us l on r acts with hydrofluoric acid at ery ma k lly redu d rate Undoubtedly high p r e ur h g h t m p r e ure chem stry m d tined to h come one of the most imp rtant a eas of re earch i norganic hem t r y

For m ny s i d tate de ce it is of the great st importan e to have v y pure mate ial or material with j st the orr t amount of impurity For tran sors t s of the g e t t m p tanc to e c r ilico co tati n tle rder of a few parts per bill on of impuri t This s commonly ach ed by a c m b nati n of ch m l and phy cal procedu e m l d ng z e m l t ng Th j s paral on of s ltra pu e no g nic compound s al o ital in the p e j a s at on f lum e s cent and pho phore c nt mate als

**Geochemical aspects** Many of the sy th ti p c d es carried ut at l gh temp rat r s and pres s ha e c n d rable ntere t n g e che n s t r y P rhaps th ea l e s t n gani chem t r y was p a ticed in c nne t n with m i e r al gy M i e r al synthe s n the p e p a t ion of norga io c m po d d nt al with th e found n natu e are i c t e ngly o upy g the atte ti n f the m r gani chem t r y t only is this of c n t f i c imp r tance i e pla ng the sequen e f ch m cal r ac ti ns nd c nd t ns re p bl for th format on f the m i e r al n natu but ma y m i n e r l s and gem of indu t al mpo tance an n w be synthe d om on the l r ge and t r cal d amond ruby ap p l m quartz, or ndum E ther h g h t m p r u e rea t o o h y d s h r m al r acti ns ca ried out in water at h g h t m p r e ure and p e a e empl yed W th th d em t f l t r a h p r e e quipm nt t n w bec mes f a ble t t dy ch m al rea t i o s unde nd t i o approximat v g t m y m l e bel w th e r t h a u r f ce Su h tudies can surely be e pected to make m jo contr but n to the u der t nd g of geochem i l p h e n o m S e HIGH PRESSURE PHENOMENA

**Nuclear technology** Th d elopm nt of cle t chn logy h pr vided a great mpetus to m r gani c hem t r y The eff rts of t e c n rgan chem i t ha e be n m d y pen able to th ce ful ut l i zati on f nucle ergy The d verty of the tran uran um elem is one f the out and gly imp r t t ent n h m cal sci e has pro d d a h t of problem It has been n v e ary to ex p l e r n d t t l the ch m t r y of the t n d e le m nt n o d e t d t e r m i n e how the e new lement we t be m c o p r at d i o the p e r o d i c tabl and so the m m ed ate p t al purpo e of

devising suitable methods for the isolation and purification of plutonium and other transuranic elements. The development of solvent extraction procedures for separating the actinide elements has been applied to other inorganic ions and has had widespread repercussions in inorganic chemistry. Nuclear technology has also provided the impetus for the development of other separations procedures, for example the separation of zirconium and hafnium and of the rare earth elements from each other and has generally served to reinforce the traditional interest of the inorganic chemist in separations procedures.

**Applications in organic chemistry** Before leaving the discussion of these aspects of inorganic chemistry it may be instructive to point out one of its interesting by-products. Many of the most important advances in organic chemistry that have occurred since 1900 have resulted from the introduction of inorganic substances as reagents. The introduction of magnesium metal gave rise to the vast corpus of Grignard chemistry and of metal carbonyls to Reppe chemistry. Other inorganic substances that have found important use in organic chemistry are selenium for dehydrogenation reactions, lead tetraacetate for elective oxidation, aluminum chloride as a catalyst for alkylation, acylation and ring closure reactions, anhydrous hydrogen fluoride for diazotization, nitration, sulfonation and isomerization reactions, and most recently lithium aluminum hydride for selective reduction reactions. Within a few years of its discovery some 1500 research papers were published on the applicability of lithium aluminum hydride to organic syntheses. Among the host of inorganic compounds there must be many of great utility in organic syntheses.

### THEORETICAL INORGANIC CHEMISTRY

For a long time inorganic chemistry was essentially preparative and descriptive, but modern inorganic chemistry frequently is difficult to differentiate from physical chemistry or chemical physics. The modern inorganic chemist has an intense interest in the structure of chemical compounds. From a knowledge of the interatomic distance and other geometrical data, valuable inferences may often be drawn regarding the nature of the chemical bonding involved and thus of chemical behavior. All modern methods of structure determination are employed: Electron diffraction, x-ray and neutron diffraction, infrared and ultraviolet absorption spectroscopy, magnetic susceptibility measurements and nuclear and electron paramagnetic resonance are all employed for structure determination. For the case of nonstoichiometric compounds, Gilbert's phase rule studies, x-ray crystallography and various electrical measurements find particular application for structural investigation. The study of chemical structure has shed new light on many classical problems. For example, elucidation of the structure of phosporic compounds has provided a firm foundation for the new chemistry of phos-

phorus now in the process of formulation. Another classical structural problem has been that of the boron hydrides. Simple valence bond theory was inadequate to account for the forces holding the molecule together. Recently it has been concluded that a new type of chemical bonding called a three-center bond because two hydrogen atoms and a boron atom are held together as a unit is crucial in the structure of the boron hydrides.

**Bonding** There is an intimate relation between structural studies and a detailed interpretation of chemical bonding. A knowledge of the geometry of the molecule contributes to an understanding of the forces involved in chemical bonding and conversely for certain classes of compounds a knowledge of the nature of the chemical bonding helps define the geometry of the substances. In addition to the classical forms of valence, crystal field or ligand field theory has become very important in theoretical inorganic chemistry. It is essentially an extension of the electrostatic theory of chemical force. Based on molecular orbital theory, crystal field theory considers the effect of the local electric field on the energy levels of the various orbitals involved in chemical bonding. For certain combinations of field and orbitals, splitting of the energy levels occurs and certain orbitals gain an extra energy of stabilization. The effect of the crystal (or ligand) field may be reflected in a distortion of the molecule so that crystal field theory is becoming increasingly important in the interpretation of structural distortions found in the crystal structure of solids. See CHEMICAL BONDING.

One of the most important areas in which crystal field theory is being applied is in the study of coordination compounds. Crystal field theory has enjoyed considerable success in predicting the stability of complexes of different metals with different ligands and in explaining magnetic and absorption spectra of complex compounds and in predicting rates and mechanism of reaction of complex compounds. The stereochemistry of coordination compounds is a classical preoccupation of the inorganic chemist and the study of the complex coordination compounds of the transition elements has been one of the most active and fruitful areas of endeavor in chemical research since 1900. The factors involved in the relative stability of the large number of coordination compounds formed from the various transition elements has occupied the attention of many inorganic chemists and depicts the great advances which have been made in recent years, particularly by the application of crystal field theory. The problems are still far from settled. Research into the factors involved in the stereochemistry, stability and reaction of coordination compounds thus continue as a leading activity of inorganic chemistry. The implication of such work extends far beyond the field of inorganic chemistry to the importance of coordination phenomena in photochemistry, respiration, enzyme reactions, chemotherapy and other biological phenomena.





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clarified solution is concentrated until mositol crystallizes. Purification is accomplished by carbon treatment and recrystallization.

In spite of its seeming simplicity the process is expensive because product yield is extremely small in comparison to total material handled in the process. [N E A]

## Insect control biological

Biological control has been technically defined as the action of parasites, predators or pathogens on individuals of a host or prey population resulting in premature death or reduced fecundity. Some authorities would limit the meaning of the term to man's use of organisms to control other organisms. The term microbial control is frequently used to indicate that type of biological control in which microorganisms exert the control and is one of the applied phases of the field of insect pathology. Although all manner of living organisms are included in these concepts, most of the present knowledge in the field of biological control is based on the effects of parasites, predators and pathogens on small vertebrates, weeds and insects, in particular on the latter. Although the role of biotic factors in the suppression and regulation of insect populations was perceived during the nineteenth century, a broader appreciation of the potentialities of the role and use of biotic agents has been a twentieth century development.

In nature, beneficial insects and microorganisms are constantly taking their toll of pest populations. In an increasing number of instances, man has learned to introduce or manipulate biological control agents in such a manner as to reduce the density of a pest population to a point below that at which economic injury to man's interest occurs. Classic examples include the introduction into California of the vedalia beetle from Australia to control the cottony cushion scale on citrus; the introduction of certain chrysomelid beetles into Australia and the United States to control St. John's Wort or Klamath weed; and the use of milky disease bacteria to control the Japanese beetle in the eastern United States. An example of an unusual form of biological control is the release of male screw worm flies sterilized by x-ray which mate with females that then lay infertile eggs.

The basic principle of the biological method of controlling pests involves the knowledge that there exists in nature a balance between the pest and its enemies and that this balance may be altered or shifted intentionally in such a manner as to decrease the numbers of the pest. Pests are frequently unintentionally brought into an area and enabled to flourish without being accompanied by their natural enemies. Biological control scientists seek out usually in the pest's native habitat the missing natural enemies and then introduce them into the recently invaded area.

The injudicious use of chemical insecticides sometimes upsets the natural parasite-host balance, thus permitting the pest to recur in destructive numbers or relatively minor pests in the absence of or

through the destruction of their natural enemies may become serious pests.

In addition to their role as microbial control agents in nature or as introduced biotic agents in autogenous microorganisms may also be used as microbial insecticides that is as spray or dusts. This method appears to be especially feasible with bacteria and viruses but similar use of fungi, protozoa and nematodes may also be possible. Ordinarily resistant stages (spores) of the microorganisms are used when disseminating them. Microorganisms may also be introduced into susceptible host populations where they become established and remain active for long periods of time. They may also be used in combination with chemical insecticides and with parasites and predators.

The principal advantages of biological control methods is that they do not leave toxic residues and they may be more lasting in their beneficial effects. Furthermore, microbial control agents not only are nontoxic to man, animals and plant but usually do not harm the parasites and predators of the pest or beneficial insects such as the honey bee. See ENTOMOLOGY ECONOMIC INSECTICIDE.

[E A S T]

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## Insect physiology

The study of the functional properties of insect tissues and organs. The adaptations enabling insects to live on land are often strikingly different from those found in other animal groups such as the higher vertebrates. Accordingly, insect physiology makes a comparison of physiologic adaptations in insects which have analogous functions in other forms. Insects, because of their diversity, abundance and wide distribution, exert great influence on the general character of life on land. Insect physiology therefore contributes to the broad study of terrestrial ecology. Insects assume economic importance as crop pollinators, disease vectors and pests (see ENTOMOLOGY ECONOMIC). Insect physiology is also concerned with the control of certain insect species and with the modification of insecticides. In spite of their specialization, insects have basic physiologic mechanisms common to most forms of life. Some of these mechanisms because of the unique manner in which they are displayed in the insects are especially amenable to experimentation.

### DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH

**Development.** Fertilization is internal. Unfertilized eggs normally develop into males in many ants, bees and wasps and into females in summer generations of aphids. Eggs develop externally in most cases. Early cleavage in the egg is limited to the nuclei.

Postembryonic growth is discontinuous, being interrupted by 3-8 or more molts. During each intermolt period the insect feeds, gains in weight



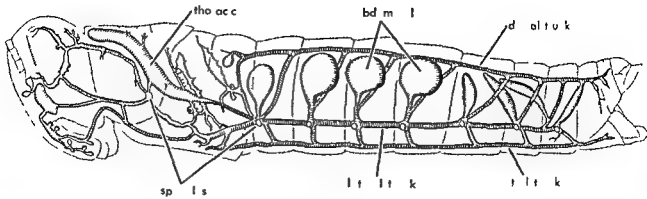


Fig 1 Grasshopper respiratory system showing spiracles tracheal tubes and air sacs of the left side

(From T I Stoer and R L Usinger *General Zoology* 3d ed McGraw Hill 1957)

**Digestion and nutrition** There is little of nutritive value that is not attacked by insects. Diets range from fluids such as plant juice and blood through conventional animal and vegetable foods to cellulose wax and wool. The digestive tract is degenerate in the adults of some species in which feeding is limited to the immature stages in which feeding is limited to the immature stages. Mouth parts vary greatly with diet (see INSECTA).

Conventional digestive enzymes are produced by the salivary glands which secrete silk in some species and by the midgut epithelium. Mucus is absent. In many insects the gut contents are enclosed in a thin chitinous sac, the peritrophic membrane which is continuously secreted by the midgut. Products of digestion diffuse through the peritrophic membrane before absorption by the gut epithelium. The hindgut absorbs water from the digestive waste and plays an active part in metabolism and regulation. It is also used as a propulsive and respiratory organ in dragonfly larvae which draw water in through the anus and then force it out again.

Keratin, the protein of wool and feathers, is digested by the larvae of some beetles and moths. The disulfide bonds of keratin are changed to sulphydryl groups by strongly reducing conditions in the midgut. Beeswax is the normal diet of larvae of the wax moth. Symbiotic bacteria as well as enzymes secreted by the gut may play some part in its digestion. Wood digestion is accomplished in termites and some roaches by symbiotic bacteria and protozoa always present in the gut.

In spite of their varied and often unusual diet, the nutritional requirements of insects are fairly constant. Ten amino acids, the B vitamin complex and choline are essential for growth. Essential nutrients lacking in the diet are often supplied by symbiotic microorganisms. Adult flies may exist for long periods on sugar alone but not on egg protein alone. The fat body is the main storage site for nutritive materials.

**Symbiotes** A number of insects harbor microorganisms within or among the cells of peripheral tissues as well as within the cavity of the gut. The symbiotes include protozoa, fungi, yeasts, bacteria, and bacteriophage. In some cases microorganisms appear to be essential to the life of their

insect host as in the termites with their intestinal protozoans. In others they contribute to host nutrition and growth by increasing the availability of nutritional factors such as certain vitamins. Still other insects show no obvious defects when deprived of their symbiotes.

Certain bacteriophage organisms are cultured within specific cells grouped in a large organ, the mycetome, or scattered throughout the fat body. Infection of the next host generation by these intracellular symbiotes may be accomplished by migration of certain of the host cells to the walls of the ovary where the symbiotes are released and penetrate the developing egg cells. Intestinal symbiotes may be picked up when the host insect feeds on contaminated food. In other cases the eggs of the host become contaminated at the time of oviposition.

**Circulation** The blood is propelled forward at low pressure by a dorsal heart. It is discharged into the body cavity and filters back to the heart through spaces between organs and tissue. Accessory hearts may promote the blood flow in elongate organs such as antennae, legs, and wing. Since the blood has little or no respiratory function, the circulation may be stopped for hours without untoward effects. The heart rhythm is probably neurally generated as in other arthropods. This means that the heart originates in the activity of nerve cells in the heart wall from which nerve impulses are transmitted to the striated heart muscle. In some larvae the direction of the heartbeat is reversed at certain times.

The blood is commonly colorless, yellowish, or green. Blood cells are variable in form and numbers. Some have phagocytic properties and may aggregate during inflammation. The motility of the blood varies widely in different species and under different conditions. The diameter of the blood vessels range from 10 microns in capillaries in the fat body and in the ventrals of the heart to 1 mm in the tracheal system. Some forms, such as the silkworm, have a high protein content similar to that of vertebrates. The blood is high in the amino acid content, especially in the pupal stage. The major carbohydrate is trehalose, a non-reducing sugar. See CIRCULATION.



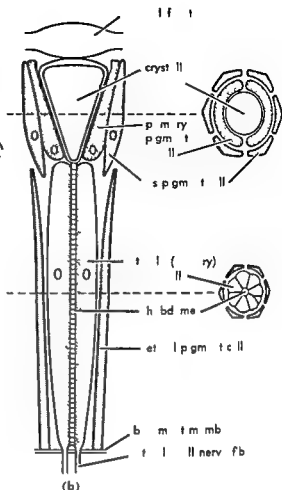
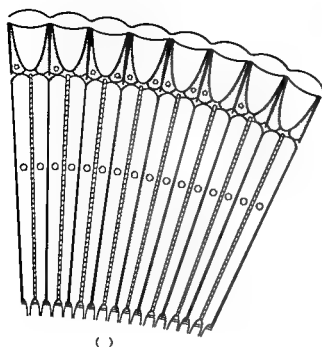


Fig 3 (a) Vertical section (daggermatic) of a portion of a compound eye (b) Detail of a single ommatidium

(From R. E. Snodgrass, Principles of Insect Morphology, McGraw-Hill, 1936)

also be resolved by rhabdomeres in adjacent ommatidia. Similarly the visual field covered by groups of ommatidia on the anterior aspects of the right and left compound eyes often overlap one another.

Although the visual acuity or resolving power of the compound eye may depend in some degree upon ommatidial angle, the overlapping of ommatidial fields indicates that the mechanism is certainly more complex than this. Visual acuity of insects is inferior to that of man, being about  $\frac{1}{10}$  in the honeybee and about  $\frac{1}{1000}$  in the fruitfly. Form perception necessarily limited by visual acuity is manifested in activities such as the learning or recognition of foraging territory by honeybees, wasps, and dragonflies.

Light energy reaching the rhabdomeres is absorbed by a visual pigment. In some unknown way the photochemical reaction which attends absorption of light elicits electrical changes in the photoreceptor cell bodies and in their axons (see PHOTO RECEPTION). The latter enter a complex system of optic ganglia which comprise a large portion of the brain.

Insect eyes respond to wavelength from the near ultraviolet into the red. Within this broad range some insect eyes can distinguish qualitative differences among various wavelengths. Behavioral studies show that honeybees recognize four col-

ors, each representing a fairly wide range of wavelengths: ultraviolet, 300–400 millimicrons ( $m\mu$ ), blue, 400–480  $m\mu$ , blue-green, 480–500  $m\mu$ , and yellow, 500–650  $m\mu$ . A sensory basis for color vision has been demonstrated electrophysiologically but not behaviorally in compound eyes of flies and cockroaches and in dorsal ocelli of honeybees. How widely color vision is distributed among insects remains to be discovered.

In some of the species two or three dorsal ocelli occur which contain many retinulae grouped beneath a single undivided cornea. They do not form an image. Their behavioral role is rather obscure, though in the cockroach they are involved in the maintenance of a diurnal activity rhythm.

**Senses of taste and smell.** The senses are considered together since they both depend upon the action of specific chemicals. The common distinction between taste and smell becomes difficult to make when aquatic animals are considered. The problem revolves about the question as to whether the chemical reaches the sense organ in the form of a gas or in solution.

The sense organ of taste are fine cuticular hairs that often curve in addition to tactile receptors. A minute receptive area at the tip of each hair is reached by fine nerve processes from one or more sense cells at its base. Chemoreceptive hairs occur on the feet, antennae, and otopodites as well as on

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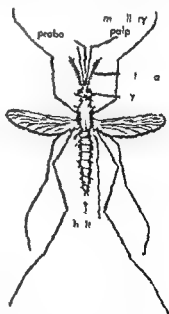


Fig 4 M s q 2 A p h l p h w g h l t  
U F m E O E g C l e g E t o m l o y M a m l l  
1942)



insects these scolopophorous organs are especially modified for hearing. The cuticle at one attachment becomes very thin and is exposed to air borne vibrations. Specialized ears of this type are found on the legs of grasshoppers, antennae of mosquitoes, abdomen of cicadas, and abdomen or thorax of certain moths. They are sensitive to change in sound intensity but do not appear to discriminate changes in pitch. The rate at which short sound pulses are repeated appears to be an important aspect of sound to insect ears. Moths can detect sound frequencies of 100 kilocycles per second or more. Insect ears serve to warn of a predator's approach (for example moths can hear the high pitched cries of hunting bats) or to locate the opposite sex. The majority of insects are very sensitive to surface vibrations. These are detected by fine sensory hairs and campaniform organs as well as by scolopophorous organs.

### SOUND AND LIGHT PRODUCTION

**Sound production** Insects make sounds by chewing on hard materials, by vibration of wings or special membranes, by rapid expulsion of gas from the tracheal system or digestive tract, by tapping on the substrate with legs, abdomen, or head, and by snapping or rubbing wings, legs, or other body parts against each other. Many of these sounds are incidental to activities such as feeding or flight, but an increasing number are being found to have communicative significance in insect behavior.

The songs of grasshoppers, crickets, and cicadas are familiar to all. Grasshoppers move a filelike structure on the leg against the edge of the wing; crickets draw a scraper on one forewing over a file on the other; cicadas vibrate a pair of drumlike membranes on the abdomen by means of special

muscles. The sounds produced are complex but consist generally of a series of pulses upon which is superimposed the higher resonant frequency of the vibrating organ.

The pulse frequency, pulse grouping, pitch, damping of vibrator, and other characteristics of these sounds are often highly species specific. Some closely related forms can be more easily recognized by their songs than by any other means. The informational content of these songs to other insects depends on differences in pulse frequency and grouping but not on differences in pitch. Male crickets have a repertoire of songs for different behavioral circumstances such as courtship or encounters with other males. In most cases insect songs serve to bring the sexes together or as part of the courting behavior.

Sounds produced by the wingbeat or by vibration of the flight muscles are common and often intense. In mosquitoes they play a part in sex recognition. Bees produce a variety of sounds by vibrating their flight muscles. Some of these may have behavioral significance. Clicks caused by sudden movements of body segments and hissing sounds from escaping air may play some part in predator evasion.

**Light production** Special photogenic organs occur in the larvae and adults of a number of beetles. They are commonly found on the ventral surface of the abdomen beneath a transparent sheet of cuticle as in the common American fireflies, *Photuris* and *Photinus*, but they also occur on other parts of the body. The light may be yellowish green, bright green, orange, or red in color. It can take the form of a steady glow, of pulsations, or of brief flashes 0.075 sec in duration.

Photogenic organs range from loose undifferentiated cells to an organized tissue of closely packed photogenic cells backed by a whitish re-

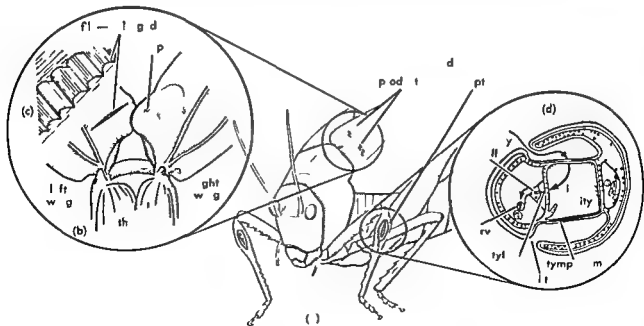


Fig. 5 (a) Katydid showing location of structures for sound production and reception. (b) Underside of forewing with file and scraper which produce sounds. (c) End of abdomen of katydid. (d) Cross section of forewing showing sound receptor. (e) Path of sound waves (b) (Kennerly and Campbell, 1957). (f) McGraw-Hill 1957)



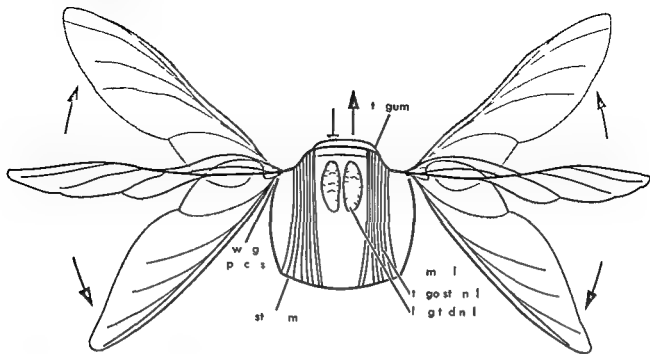


Fig 6 W g movements in the flight of an insect  
(From T I Storer and R L Usinger General Zoology 3d ed McGraw Hill 1957)

In insects with two pairs of wings the hindwings flap in air rendered turbulent by movement of the forewings and their aerodynamic efficiency is thereby impaired. In the butterflies, moths, bees, and wasps the hindwings have become reduced in size while in the flies they are lost. They may be coupled by hooks to the forewings so as to produce the effect of a single moving air foil. In beetles the forewings (elytra) serve only as covers for the hindwings which provide the power for flight.

A unique characteristic of insect flight is the high frequency at which the wings may beat. This ranges from 5 beats per second in large butterflies to as high as 1000 per second in small midges. Most grasshoppers, dragonflies, and moths have wingbeat frequencies of 15-50; medium-sized flies 100-200; bees 200-300; and mosquitoes 400-500 per second. Since the indirect flight muscles contract and relax once during each beat, the higher frequencies imply an unusual muscular performance.

With a few exceptions insects beating their wings less than 50 times per second have flight muscles similar in structure and physiology to the tubular muscle found in the legs and other appendages. In the case each motor nerve impulse from the nervous system brings about one muscle contraction and one ensuing wingbeat. High frequency wingbeat is associated with fibrillar muscle. One physiological peculiarity of this muscle is that it contracts a dozen or more times for each motor nerve impulse. The impulses appear to generate a critical tension at which the muscle becomes unstable and oscillates and does work. In other words the rhythm of fibrillar muscle is myogenic and independent of motor nerve impulse frequency. This oscillatory property of fibrillar muscle is not fully understood but it depends upon a critical tension generated by nerve

impulses. In addition to critical inertia and damping of the load, the elastic properties of the thorax and in some cases a mechanical click mechanism in series with the muscle and its load. When the muscle tension surpasses that of the spring in the click, the latter goes abruptly from the up to the

down position and the muscle goes suddenly slack. This slackening may destroy the muscle's ability to develop tension, thus permitting the click to return to its original position. It is not entirely clear how this facilitates the oscillatory behavior of fibrillar muscle. A click seems to be involved in the flight mechanism of some flies and in the sound-producing system of cicadas. In the latter a stiff convex membrane (tymbal) is vibrated in and out 100-500 times per second by a fibrillar muscle attached to its inner surface.

The air speeds of insects rarely exceed 15-20 mph, although some dragonflies may reach speeds of about 50 mph for short periods. A tethered fruit fly is capable of 2 hours' continuous flight and 1,500,000 wingbeats before exhaustion. Tethered locusts are capable of 5-8 hours of unbroken flight. Little is known about the distances free flying insects can travel nonstop. Favorable winds are undoubtedly responsible for reported trips of several hundred miles.

The immediate energy source for short flight is sugar. An exhausted fruit fly is capable of further flight within 30 sec of feeding on a sugar solution. Fat reserves are drawn upon during the longer flights of locusts. Bees may forage several miles for nectar which maintain up to 10 sugar loads. Long trips are uneconomical, however, in energy if the sugar is used in fueling the return flight.

The energy expenditure during flight is about 2000 kcal/kg of muscle per hour or 10 times that of human heart muscle and twice that calculated for

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Flight can be in tiated in mo t insects by l s of  
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# NERVOUS SYSTEM

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pathway for the integrati n of their separate ac  
tivities into a unified pattern of behavior

Th ee general approaches i a c p ro ided inf rma  
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TBRATE)

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of bees

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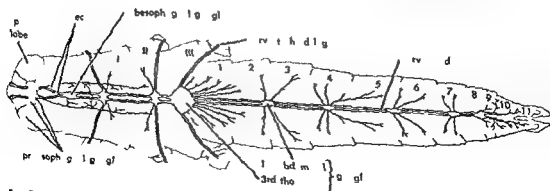


Fig 7 G h pp rv y t m d l w  
of m t l s i d r l t u y G i z l gy  
H H 1957)

nervous interactions of the three pairs of thoracic ganglia. The brain in addition to serving as a receiving and coordinating center for the input from eyes and antennae determines the pre-ence and direction of locomotion by a combination of excitatory and inhibitory neural actions on the thoracic centers. The local activities of copulation, egg laying and stinging are suppressed most of the time by higher nerve centers and only released and steered by them under appropriate stimulus situations. The mechanisms of posture and stance due to a steady contraction of certain muscle groups have much the same origin in semi-independent local nerve mechanisms subject to coordination and regulation from higher centers.

**Electrophysiology** The electrophysiological approach depends to a greater extent upon a knowledge of the finer internal structure of the nervous system; this is information that is much needed concerning insects. Sense cells just below the cuticle send nerve fibers (axons) into their segmental ganglia. Axons from motor nerve cells within the ganglia leave the nerve cord to terminate in muscles and glands. Internuncial nerve cells within the ganglia connect sensory and motor nerve fibers in a dense central region known as the neuropile. Points where sensory fibers influence the activity of internuncials and the latter in turn influence motor nerve fibers are known as synapses.

Nerve impulse transmission along in ect axons is basically the same process as in other animals. Each impulse appears to be a digital event with a high safety factor. Special giant fiber system with axons as much as  $40 \mu$  in diameter (large t mammalian axons are  $20 \mu$  in diameter) are concerned in rapid responses such as escape from predators, although most insect nerve cells are all out the same size as in larger animals. It follows from this that the total number of nerve cells in the insect nervous system is considerably less than in vertebrates, and even large muscles such as the jumping muscle of the grasshopper are supplied with only two or three motor axons.

As in all animals synapses are important as limiting mechanism in the nervous system because of the greater in tability of impulse transmission from one nerve cell to another as compared with impulse transmission along an axon. Synaptic transmission is readily modified in various ways by previous activity and by changes in the chemical environment of the nerve cells concerned. An impulse arriving at a synapse may excite or inhibit the recipient nerve cell or it may modify previous activity or influence the response to impulse arriving on other parallel synapses. For the chemical and other reactions synapses undoubtedly play a major part in the permissibility properties of the nervous system.

There is strong evidence that recipient nerve cells are acted upon by chemical substances or mediator released at the synapse formed by impinging nerve fiber. Acetylcholine identified at synapse in other animal appears to be the mediator at insect synapse. Nicotine is toxic to insects by its action on their synapses. A large dose of nicotine acts generally on a number of synapses, nerve to nerve and nerve to muscle. An important group of modern insecticides the organophosphorus compounds inactivate an enzyme in nerve tissue whose normal role is to destroy acetylcholine as soon as its action at the synapse is completed. Persistent acetylcholine at the synapses causes discoordination and spasms.

Transmission of nerve impulses along axons and at synapses can be detected as electrical changes. These electrical changes are due to rapid mass movements of ions particularly sodium and potassium along diffusion gradients across nerve cell membranes. It follows from this that critical concentrations of the ions in the fluid surrounding nerve tissues are of some importance. Since the concentrations of the ions in the blood may fluctuate with diet, the ganglia and nerves of insects are separated from the general circulation by a sheath that appears to regulate the penetration of salts and other substances into the nervous system.

**Behavior** It is impossible to make many generalizations about insect behavior since the activities of insects are as varied as their body form. The most that can be done is to point out a few facts of insect biology that provide clues to the kind of behavior likely to be encountered. Insects living in temperate climates are essentially seasonal in their activities. The eggs of a species are all laid at the same time of year and one or several generations in which all the individuals of a population are at about the same developmental stage are completed in the course of a season. This means that in most insects there is little or no contact or interaction between immature stages and adults and that each stage with its own specialized way of life may last for only a few days or weeks.

Thus the nature of most insect life cycle leaves neither time nor opportunity for behavior patterns to be acquired through emulation of experienced individuals. This means that most of the highly complex behavior patterns associated with orientation, foraging, feeding and reproduction are innate and inelastic as to the unfolding of body form which appears complete in all detail as soon as there is completion of the appropriate developmental stage and the ensuing stimulus situation. The adaptive perfection and beauty of the elaborate sequence of action made by foraging wasp and bee tempt speculation about foresight and intelligence but there is no evidence that the actions are determined or guided in any way other than that seen in the development of a pattern of colored callosities on the wing.

The inevitability of most insect behavior does not mean that insects cannot learn. In fact learning and memory of a higher order are part of many behavioral patterns in the insect world. In many artificially designed maze insects learn why a path is poor or better. However, a literary work has a striking appearance in learning the

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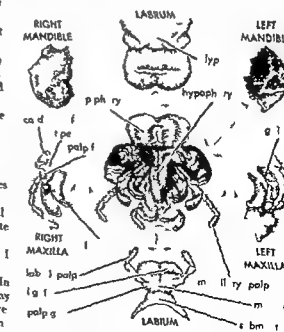
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# Insecta

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D e s t c t w d U S S S c t s 3 d d M c G w H I I  
1951)

tain the primitive condition of winglessness are placed in the subclass Apterygota which evidently descended from winged ancestors in the subclass Pterygota. There is a difference of opinion as to the number of orders of Insecta. Some authorities recognize as many as 36 others less 30 would be a conservative estimate. Each of the items classified in the outline will be found as a separate article.

# Insecta

- Subl Apterygota
  - Order Phyllocnistis
  - Order Thysanura
- Subclass Pterygota
  - Division Hemiptera
  - Order Orthoptera
    - Dermaptera
    - Plecoptera
    - Isoptera
    - Embryonaria
    - Order Hymenoptera
      - Anisoptera
      - Zygoptera
      - Ephemeroptera
      - Mallinidae
      - Anoplura
      - Psocoptera
      - Zygodontomyia
      - Hemiptera
      - Hymenoptera
      - Thysanoptera
  - Division Hymenoptera
  - Order Mecoptera
    - Nemoptera
    - Lepidoptera
    - Diptera
    - Siphonaptera
    - Coleoptera
    - Hymenoptera

## ANATOMY

The head, thorax and abdomen are the three main divisions of the insect body.

**Head.** The head bears the mouth and associated appendages as well as the antennae and eyes. The mouthparts are composed of four closely united structures: the labrum (upper lip), the mandibles, the maxillae and the labium (lower lip). The mandibles are heavily sclerotized structures which crush the food. The labrum covers the mouth opening while the maxillae manipulate the food and the labium covers the under surface of the mouth. Within the buccal cavity or cibarium is a tongue-like structure, the hypopharynx. Basically the mouthparts are modified for chewing; however, there are various departures from this type among insects.

Various glands discharge their contents into the cibarium. The most important are the salivary glands lying in the thorax and opening internally through a common duct at the base of the labium. These structures, which produce the salivary secretion, are of great importance in those species serving as vectors of disease-producing organisms. The best known product of these structures is the silk of the silkworm.

**Antennae.** The antennae, which usually consist of several segments, are very slender organs attached

to the head in front of and between the eyes. They are present in all but a few insects, even though sometimes reduced to vestiges of a single segment. They are the principal organs of smell, but in some insects they have an auditory function and probably have in all insects a tactile function.

**Eyes.** Two kinds of eyes occur: compound and simple. The compound eyes are commonly large; in some insects they comprise the greater part of the head, but in others may be small or lacking. They are composed of from 1 to an estimated 28,000 facets of clear epidermis, each with a light-sensitive structure beneath it. Each of the simple eyes, known as ocelli or stemmata, has a single facet overlying the light organ. There may be several of these in some insect larvae, but adult insects never have more than three.

**Thorax.** Usually connected to the head by a distinct membranous neck, the thorax is composed of three segments that are quite closely united but generally recognizable. The first of these is the prothorax, is commonly the most distinct and bears one pair of legs. The second and third, called respectively the mesothorax and the metathorax, each bear two legs and two wings. Generally these segments are quite closely united to form a sort of box which carries the muscles for the legs and for the wings. The wings are always undeveloped in immature forms and the legs commonly so.

**Legs.** The legs are divided into six sections or segments. The basal segment or subcoxa is flattened and expanded. It forms the side walls of the corresponding segment of the thorax. The second segment, the coxa, forms at times almost a true ball and socket joint with the subcoxa, thus permitting movement in any direction. The third segment, called the trochanter, is very small and quite often is divided into two parts. The fourth segment, the femur, is invariably the largest and longest. The fifth, the tibia, is shorter. The tarsus, the next segment, is commonly divided into five or less smaller parts, with the terminal one commonly bearing a pair of claws. All the parts are actuated by a common muscle. The legs are modified in many ways for swimming, digging, running, crawling, leaping or clinging to the hairs of other animals. Although some parts may be absent, legs are always formed upon the basic pattern described.

**Wings.** In many respects wings are the most important structures of the adult insect body (except for mayflies, immature insects do not have wings). The way in which wings develop is one of the bases for broad insect classification into orders, families and even smaller groups. So precisely are they associated with particular groups that an insect can frequently be recognized on the basis of a single detached wing. Knowledge of fossil insects depends largely upon the wing, because they are among the more readily fossilized parts of the insect body.

Wings may be likened to cellophane sacks that are pressed flat at maturity and which have wires in the opposing surfaces that stiffen their structure. All cellular structure underlying the surfaces has

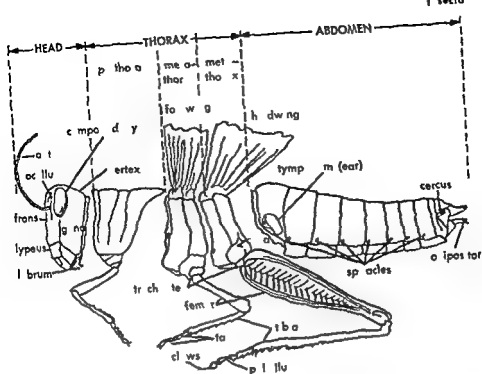


Fig 2 Outl f b dy f grasshopp l t l w D st ct d U f l l ct 3d d MG w H l l  
 m C L M l f W P F l d R L M l f 1951)

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 c h e o l e



## INTERNAL ANATOMY

The internal structure of insects may be considered in its five major aspects: digestive, excretory, circulatory, nervous, and reproductive systems.

**Digestive system** Insects possess an alimentary canal extending from the mouth at the anterior to the anus at the posterior end of the body. This canal varies in form from straight to convoluted. It begins with the buccal cavity or cibarium, continues through the pharynx, which serves as a gateway and sometimes as a pump for liquids, and on through the slender esophagus, which may expand into the crop. The crop in many forms is lined with teeth for further grinding of food. Next in order is the proventriculus, followed by the cardiac valve leading into the midintestine, where the principal processes of digestion take place. The openings of the excretory system are at the posterior end of the midgut. The canal narrows to form the short intestine and then widens again to form the rectum. The anal opening morphologically is on the eleventh segment of the abdomen.

**Excretory system** The excretory system consists of from 2 to as many as 150 tubules called the Malpighian tubules. They generally discharge into the posterior end of the midgut or into the beginning of the small intestine. In some instances they are much folded and thus longer than the body itself.

**Circulatory system** The blood-propelling organ or heart is a single blood vessel called the dorsal tube that extends almost the length of the body. Blood is taken in through openings or ostia in the posterior region of the heart, is propelled forward, and then discharged at the anterior end, after which it flows freely through sinuses of the body cavity finally to return to the dorsal tube.

**Nervous system** The nervous system consists of a pair of nerve cords, usually closely united as a single cord and extending along the ventral side of the body cavity. In the nerve cords are swellings called

ganglia. Typically there is a pair to each body segment, but this number may be reduced by the fusion of ganglia. The two cords separate in the head to pass around the alimentary canal, thus forming the esophageal commissure. They unite again at the supraesophageal ganglion or brain, which is formed from the fusion of ganglia of all the segments of the head. From each ganglion of the chain, nerves extend to each corresponding segment of the body and also extend from the brain to part of the alimentary canal. There are several minor ganglia connected directly with the brain.

**Reproductive system** In the female, the reproductive system consists primarily of a pair of ovaries, each with a number of tubes called ovarioles. The ovarioles from each ovary unite into a common tube, and the two tubes fuse to form the oviduct. This discharges through an external opening, the vulva, located on the ventral side of the eighth segment. There are special glands and other chambers that open into the oviduct. The germ cell forms at the inner end of each ovariole and passes through a series of chambers receiving its supply of food material as it proceeds. In the last chamber it receives its chorion or shell, which has a minute opening, the micropyle. As the completed egg proceeds into the oviduct, it passes the opening of a chamber, the spermatheca, where sperm previously received from the male is released to enter the egg and cause fertilization. The other gland may at this point contribute various substances used for attaching the egg to a substrate or for covering it.

In the male, there are paired testes in which the sperm are formed. From the testes a pair of slender ducts called the vasa deferentia unite into a common ejaculatory duct, and this extends into a variously sclerotized penis. The sperm is commonly stored in swellings of the vasa deferentia to await copulation. Connected with the male structure are various accessory glands.

Among the many groups of insects, various modifications exist in the basic structure, and in their

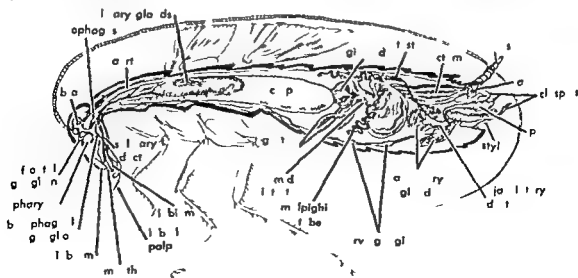


Fig 3 Sagittal section of a cockroach showing internal anatomy (From C. L. M. and W. P. F. and R. L.

M. and D. F. and D. U. F. and J. d. McG. and H. H. 1951)

method of per to n In f et almost ery method  
of eprod et n that s kn w m th an m l k i g  
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thr gh th m duct i t the o ar le to fert i c th  
egg b f i enter th id t The f rtilized m  
mat r gg d l p t matu ity in the ova i le In  
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mbry i r t ed with the b dy unt l i t fully  
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Th r e som th s f pl c tal de elopment  
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### METAMORPHOSIS

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sied o the b i s f the type f metam rph s s  
th y und m ut n d b l w

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m m pl a d gr d l m m tu f r m e  
m b l th ad l e e p t n m and r re  
f d t y m ph  
d f m m t b l ou m tam pho ne m  
p l t g l l ar n n t a quat c larv e  
a d  
H l m t bolo mplet or m d e c t m f  
m ph s s t n n th s d elopm nt are  
th gg l r pupa nd ad l i m g

T a i i t n m u l t a k th gh  
the lat ly neta l d r m l o i s Th is  
d w th the d f r t a n h r m n a s f l l w  
A w k n t i g y h g l d d w  
d r n th th l d W h n th ew k n ompl t  
th l d p t r d th t t ke s water  
i th a l m n y l n n and  
p l ut T t a m o l t n g e r d y The new  
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g l l l e e p d n t r l l b f f  
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h n g f m the l h t h d m b r y s the  
f l l f m o d ad l e n t k e p l In som f r m  
th d l d f f r m th y m ph l t g e n l y n

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known a th pupal tag The larva and the a l i t  
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n c m m o n S i n t e r e c t p h y s i o l o g y I n f e c t a f o s s i l s

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1957 H H Ro A Textbook of Entomology 7d  
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### Insecta fossils

F s i l i e c t s a r t h r e m a n o r t r a c e f i n  
i s p r e r v e d i n r o c k T h e y t i l l y c n i t i n  
p a r t o f a n i m p r e s i o n i n t h r o c k m a t r i x a n d i n  
p a r t f o r m a l t e r e d r g a n e s u b t a n e s m r e  
r r e l y a i n t h e a f s i t p r e r v e d i n a m b e r  
m g a c o m p u n d s l h i n m a y p r  
i t w t h u t h n g f g e n e a l i n s e c t b e e m e p r e  
e r v e d a f o i s b y t h e l u r l o f l i v i n g o r f r e l l y  
k i l l d p m n o l t m d w h i c h a c c m l t e s  
a p d l y n o u g h t p r e v e n t d s n t g r t o n o f t h e i n  
s t T t n t a l h a d e n g o f t h e m i d f r m s a  
e d i m n t r y r o c k c n t n i n g t h i n s e c t r e m a i  
The f s l i n e c t s a r e o b t a i n e d b y p l u t t i n g t h e  
r k a l o n p l n e f d e p o s i t i n w i t h a h m m e r a n d  
c h e l S e e A m e r e n

Fossil record Fossil in cts ha e b en found in  
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b e d n t h e t w n f f l o a n t C o l a d I n t h e T e r  
t i a r y P e r i o d o f t h e t h s h t o r y b o u t 50 000  
000 y e g o t h w t h i t f a h l l o w l a k  
a u u n d d b y a t e v o l c a o A t h e l f r m  
t h l a n e s f l l i n t o t h e w a t e o f t h e l a k e t c a r  
e d l n g w i t h t w h a t e n e t s w e r e f l y i n g o n  
t h e l i k e a n d t h e a h t i t l e d o n t h b o t t o m t o  
f o m m u n d t h n e c t s w p o m p l y b u e d T h e  
F l o a s h a l h a s y l d d f u l l y 100 000 p c i  
m e f n i t (F g l d 2)

P u r o c T h e l e t k n w n f i l n c t s  
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U p p e C r b f u (P e n n y l a a ) a g e M t  
f i t h c a l y s c t s h d p p x m a t e l y t h s i e a n d  
p p e o f t h e l i g m p l e s n d d r a g n l s  
t o w h i h t h e y w l e l y e l e d A f e w o f t h  
d a g n l l i k e i s t h l o g n g t o e f a m i l y f  
t h e t t i t o d I t d o n t a w e l a g e h a v g  
w n g p r l f 6 m (30 n ) T h m o t n u m o  
t f t h t u m a t l e t s i w a m p v r e g i  
w t h c o k r c h e s w h c h e m i l a i n a p

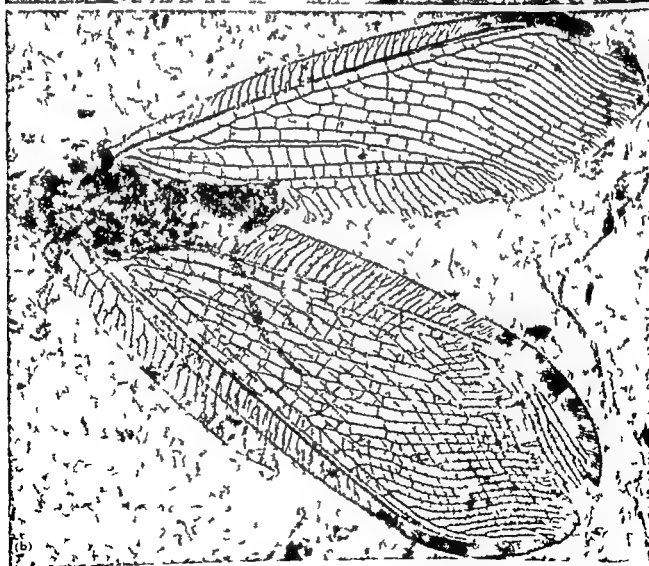


Fig. 1. Fossils from the Moen Formation of Colorado. (a) *Podyspsepho* (Coleoptera: Lepidoptera). (b) *Lithomyia* (Coleoptera: Lithomyiidae). (c) *Lithomyia* (Coleoptera: Lithomyiidae).



tigations of living insects. There is, however, no fossil evidence bearing on the question of insect origin. The oldest insects known show no transition to other arthropods. Morphological and developmental studies, however, have indicated that the ancestors of the insects were terrestrial arthropods probably related to the Symphyla. Although the time of that origin is not directly demonstrated in the rocks, the fossil record suggests that it was at least as far back as the Mississippian Period (Lower Carboniferous strata).

The fossil record combined with morphological studies of living types shows that insects have passed through three major evolutionary steps. The first of these was the development of wings as simple but functional outgrowths of the thoracic wall which could not be folded back over the abdomen when the insect was at rest. The dragonflies and mayflies constitute the only living order that represent this stage in insect evolution. The second step was marked by the evolution of a complicated wing articulation which enabled the wings to be folded back over the abdomen at rest and by the presence of immature stages resembling the adults. The grasshoppers and their relatives (Orthoptera), the true bugs (Hemiptera) and similar living orders belong to this stage. The third step was the acquisition of a complicated postembryonic development with an immature stage (larva) very different from the adult, as in beetles and true flies. The fossils show that insects passed through these stages before the beginning of the Permian Period, some 225,000,000 years ago, when land-inhabiting vertebrates were only starting their evolutionary history. See INSECTA. [F.M.C.]

**Bibliography** C. T. Brue, A. L. Melander and F. M. Carpenter. The classification of insects. *Bull. Museum Comp. Zool.* 108: 777-827, 1954. F. M. Carpenter. *The Geological History and Evolution of Insects*. Smithsonian Inst. Publs. Rept. 1953: 339-350, 1954.

## Insecticide

A material used to kill insects and related animals by disruption of vital processes through chemical action. Chemically, insecticides may be of inorganic or organic origin. The principal source is from chemical manufacturing, although a few are derived from plants. Insecticides are classified according to type of action as stomach poisons, contact poisons, residual poisons, systemic poisons, fumigants, repellents or attractants. Many act in more than one way. Stomach poisons are applied to plants so that they will be ingested as insects chew the leaves. Contact poisons are applied directly to insects and are used principally to control species which obtain food by piercing leaf surface and withdrawing liquid. Residual insecticides are applied to surfaces so that insects touching them will pick up lethal dosage. Systemic insecticides are applied to plants or animals and are absorbed and translocated to all parts of the organism so that insects feeding upon them will obtain lethal

doses. Fumigants are applied as gases or in a form which will vaporize to a gas to be inhaled by insects. Repellents prevent insects from coming in contact with their host. Attractants induce insects to come to specific locations in preference to normal food sources.

In the United States about 500 species of insects are of primary economic importance and losses caused by insects range from \$4,000,000,000 to \$8,000,000,000 annually.

**Inorganic insecticides.** Prior to 1915 large volumes of lead arsenate, calcium arsenate, paris green (copper acetoarsenite), sodium fluoride and cryolite (sodium fluoaluminate) were used. The potency of arsenicals is a direct function of the percentage of metallic arsenic contained. Lead arsenate was first used in 1892 and proved effective as a stomach poison against many chewing insects. Calcium arsenate was widely used for the control of cotton pests. Paris green was one of the first stomach poisons and had its greatest utility against the Colorado potato beetle. The amount of available water-soluble arsenic governs the utility of arsenates on growing plants because this fraction will cause foliage burn. Lead arsenate is safe in this respect, calcium arsenate intermediate and paris green the most harmful. Care must be exercised in the application of the material to food and feed crops because they are poisonous to man and animal as well as to insects.

Sodium fluoride has been used to control chewing lice on animals and poultry, but its principal application has been for the control of household insects, especially roaches. It cannot be used on plants because of its extreme phytotoxicity. Cryolite has found some utility in the control of the Mexican bean beetle and flea beetles on vegetable crops because of its low water solubility and lack of phytotoxicity.

**Organic insecticides.** These began to supplant the arsenicals when DDT [2,2-bis(p-chlorophenyl)-1,1,1-trichloroethane] became available in 1945. During World War II the insecticidal properties of γ-benzenehexachloride (γ-1,2,3,4,5,6-hexachlorocyclohexane or γ-BHC) were discovered in England and France. The two large-volume insecticides are DDT and γ-BHC (125,000,000 lb. of DDT was produced in the United States during 1957). Certain insects cannot be controlled with either and there are situations and crops where they cannot be used. For the creation of other fluorinated hydrocarbon insecticides, a series of fluorinated and marketed successfully. These include TDF [2,2-bis(p-chlorophenyl)-1,1,1-trichloroethane], methoxychlor [2,2-bis(p-methoxyphenyl)-1,1,1-trichloroethane], Dilan [mixture of 1,1-bis(p-chlorophenyl)-2-nitropropane and 1,1-bis(p-chlorophenyl)-2-nitrobutane], chlorlone (2,3,4,5-tetraoctachloro-2,3,4,5-tetrahydro-4,7-methanoindene), leptachlor (1,1,1,3,5,5,7,7,7-nonafluoro-4,7a-tetrahydro-4,7-methanoindene), aldrin (1,2,3,4,10,10-hexachloro-1,4,4a,5,8,8a,9,9a-octahydroexo-5,8-dimethanonaphthalene) 1,3,1-

1010-hex hl 0-67 ep xy 144a56788a-octahy  
dro-1-tendo 20-58-d m thanonaphthalen ) en  
d : (1234 1010-hex hl 0-6 -epoxy 144a56  
78 8a-octahy 0-1-tendo e 7 58 d m than naph  
th l e) totaphene (camphene plu 67-69<sup>c</sup> chlo-  
rine) and Thiod (678 1010-ha a hlo 0-15.5a  
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beet h ch i n t u ept bl t DDT Re t ct ns  
ha e be placed on its u on da ry c tile fo the  
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Ddanhs f nds m u e n the cont ol f th V x  
c n b an beet a w ll as f s me thrip and  
aph d Chlo d ewa th fir t yel pentan en :  
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th mo i f etu e hem c l alabl i t the control  
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r e hlo d ne l po es fumiga i ct n  
lated h m i l de hepta hlo ald m di drim  
and nds They a f i e v e n t gra hoppers  
and pec lly efu f r th control of insect  
inhab u g s l To aph e i ed pr p lly f  
th t l of th c it boll weevl and othe i ect  
pest f e tto Thoda i d d t n t sho ing  
pr m i f r the ntr l of nune us cts als  
h w p om i f t f l ng numb i pec s  
of phytoph g (pl nt f d ng) mtes that are n t  
gen ally ept bl t hlo mat d hyd ca bon  
i ect c de

**Insect resistance** The re i stance of n ects t  
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ides tw type of es t n occurs On apph to  
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nd Dil a d the th r t she cy lod en com  
p d h h d b pt l l or aldr i  
eldr n end : d al y BHC nd to phene lo  
t des a n t m t g i d cati g that  
e tan e pee t n a sm ll part f the n tural  
p pal t e v b so e p  
he ly e y e t s th wold ex pt m n  
l nd Ch na h ported the pr eu e of r at t  
str f th h fly l m n r h vily popul ted  
u b s f the U ted St t i s d ficult to  
bt n t ol f a fies w th hl dan During  
1957 d 1958 m ny gr wer f ott in the  
south m st tes h nged f om t xaph e d  
y BHC to rgan ph phoru hem cal b ause  
f th m tance f the c n boll w e v f to chlorn  
at d hyd oc rbon i ects d The d el pment  
f t f th n m agg t e t ant t ld n  
d d eldr n n the t r n U n t d t tes and in  
Ont t u g c ern The dev l p m nt of  
hlo ted h d oca bon r t m ng e ral  
per es of d e-tran mting squ t es i a  
th at t w ld be lth Th c n t l of typhus in the

Far Ea t is at stake now that trains of the l ce  
tran mltu g the d ea e are re i tant to DDT

**Organic phosphorus insecticides** The de elor  
ment f th a type of insecticide paralleled that of  
the chlorinated hydrocarb ns Since 1947 about 50  
000 o ganic pho ph rus c mpound have been syn  
th ed in academ c and indu sri l laborat r es  
throughout the w rld for evaluat on as potential  
in ecticides Parath n [O O diethyl] O (p-nitro-  
phenyl) pho ph orthoate and methyl parath on  
[O O dimethyl] O [p-nitrophenyl] pho ph ortho-  
ate are e i mated t have had a w rld production  
of 20 000 000 lb dur ng 1958

A g eat d er ity of acti ity i found among r  
gan ph sphoru n eectides Ma y are extremelv  
t i to man and th r w rm flooded an mals but  
a few how a ery low to xity Th more imp r  
tant include tetraethylpyr ph phosphate Chl rothion  
[O O d m thyl] O (3-chl ro-4-n t ophenyl) ph s-  
phoroth oate Malathion [O O d methyl] S (1,2 d  
ca beth xethyl) ph phorodith o te] DDVP  
[O O dimethyl] O (2,2 d chl m nyl) pl ph te]  
Diazinon [O O diethyl] O [n op nyl t-methylpy  
rimidyl] (6) phospor orthoate Delna [2,3-p-d  
u d th l S S bis(O O diethyl) ph phorodith o-  
te] Cuth n [O O d methyl] S (4-o o-3H 1,2  
3-benz tr z n-3-m thyl) pho phoroditha ate] T i  
th on [S (p-chlor phenylthi methyl) O O d ethyl]  
pho ph rod thioate] Ethion [bi S (d ethoxyph  
phn thi llyl) m e pt [methane] EPN [O ethyl  
O (p-n r phenyl) ph nylpho ph noth onate] and  
Dip r ex [O O d methyl] (2,2,2 trichl ro-1 hydroxy  
ethyl) ph ph at ]

Schradz [bis(d methyl m i o)ph (h ric n  
h d de) w s u i pue am ng organic insectid in  
th t n how d i temic prop r es whe appl d to  
plants By direct c nt t i ha relati ly low  
rde of acti ity When pr yed on plants, t i  
b o bed f om areas recei ng treatment i tran lo-  
ted thr gh ut the enur plant and i metabo-  
liz d i t i d a prod ct highly t xic t xch suck  
g p ts aph ds nd p f t phagous m tes It is  
elect e in th t n affe t o ly aph ds ngesting  
ju ces f m t e ted plo s nd does n t k ll pr d  
t wh ch d t r y apt d With ch dan it is  
n w p s ble to p t t the grow g pa s of plants  
without e tng t f qu nt spaying becau  
the insect de is t anal ated t these gr wing  
parts wh s with mo t o mach p i on or re d  
ual n ects ides pl nts o t grow th protection  
Seve l chem cal how ng s y temi pr perties  
have ow re hed e mme al n n a commercial  
status Th i el d Demet n [O O d ethyl  
O (and S) (2 ethylth i) ethyl phosphoroth oates]  
Di S y on [O O diethyl] S (2 ethylthio) ethyl phos-  
pho odith te] Thum t [O O diethyl] S ( thylthi  
omethyl) ph ph od th o te] and Phodr  
[2 m thoxy arbo l l m thyl nyl dimethyl] ph s-  
ph te]

Th u f gan ph plorus chemical f r th  
t m e co tr l of an m l pa ites i another  
f et of i te t B g 198 m omme cal p-  
pl ation of Co-Ral [O (3-chlo o-4-methylumbellif

tigations of living insects. There is however no fossil evidence bearing on the question of insect origin. The oldest insects known show no transition to other arthropods. Morphological and developmental studies however have indicated that the ancestors of the insects were terrestrial arthropods probably related to the Symphyla. Although the time of that origin is not directly demonstrated in the rock, the fossil record suggests that it was at least as far back as the Mississippian Period (Lower Carboniferous strata).

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**Inorganic insecticides** Prior to 1945 large volumes of lead arsenate, calcium arsenate, paragon (copper acetoarsenite), sodium fluoride and cryolite (sodium fluoaluminate) were used. The potency of arsenicals is a direct function of the percentage of metallic arsenic contained. Lead arsenate was first used in 1897 and proved effective as a stomach poison against many chewing insects. Calcium arsenate was widely used for the control of cotton pests. Paris green was one of the first stomach poisons and had its greatest utility against the Colorado potato beetle. The amount of available water soluble arsenic governs the utility of arsenates on growing plants because this fraction will cause foliage burn. Lead arsenate is safe in this respect, calcium arsenate intermediate and Paris green the most harmful. Care must be exercised in the application of these materials to food and feed crops because they are poisonous to man and animals as well as to insects.

Sodium fluoride has been used to control chewing lice on animals and poultry but its principal application has been for the control of household insects especially roaches. It cannot be used on plants because of its extreme phytotoxicity. Cryolite has found some utility in the control of the Mexican bean beetle and flea beetles on vegetable crops because of its low water solubility and lack of phytotoxicity.

**Organic insecticides** These began to supplant the arsenicals when DDT (2,2-bis (p-chlorophenyl) 1,1,1-trichloroethane) became available in 1945. During World War II the insecticidal properties of  $\gamma$ -benzenehexachloride ( $\gamma$ -1,2,3,4,5,6-hexachlorocyclohexane or  $\gamma$ -BHC) were discovered in England and France. The two major volume insecticides are DDT and  $\gamma$ -BHC (195 000 000 lb of DDT was produced in the United States during 1951). Certain insecticides cannot be controlled with either and there are situations and crops where they cannot be used. For these reasons other chlorinated hydrocarbons in insecticide have been developed and marketed successfully. These include DDF (2,2-bis (p-chlorophenyl) 1,1-dichloroethane), methoxychlor (2,2-bis (p-methoxyphenyl) 1,1,1-trichloroethane), Dilan (mixture of 1,1,1 (p-chlorophenyl) 2-nitropropane and 1,1,1 (p-chlorophenyl) 2-nitrobutane), blerial (2,3,5,6,7,8-hexachloro-2,3,4,4,7,7a-hexachloro-4,7,8-trimethylenedene), heptachlor (1,5,6,7,8,8-heptachloro-3,4,5,6-tetrahydro-4-methan-1-one), aldrin (1,2,3,4,10,10-hexachloro-1,4,4a,8,8a-hexahydro-1,4-endoxo-5,8-dimethanonaphthalene), dieldrin (1,2,3,4,

(Talpidae) based only from South America Australasia, and Madagascar See EUTHEPIA MAMMALIA

# Insectivora fossils

Fossils of insectivores are referred to two groups on the basis of the structure of the lower jaw. The first group is composed of insectivores in which the lower incisor is large and the stapedial artery is the major source of blood supply to the brain. These are known as the Lipotyphla or Insectivora proper. All living insectivores except the elephant shrew (Macroscelididae) and tree shrew (Tupaiaidae) are of late Cenozoic and a few early Cenozoic. The second group is generally more primitive and is primarily early Cenozoic in known occurrence. Living members have a small incisor and the blood supply to the brain is supplied mainly by the stapedial artery, not as important as in the lipotyphla. Primitive tupaiaids and macroscelidids are dependent on the early representatives of this second group sometimes called the Metatyphla.

Lipotyphla The Lipotyphla the ancestry of the hedgehog (Eichleridae) has been traced back to the Oligocene of Europe with unique and still more primitive ones also have been found in the late Eocene of the United States. The oldest forms are known as the Eocene of the Cretaceous in the United States. These forms are close to the ancestral Metatyphla known as the Thylacynodontids of the hedgehog family always been European. All but the earliest record of the family in North America is represented by the fossil Thylacynodontids. The family was reached South America from Australia both by white land during most of the Cenozoic. A distinct branch, the Dasyproctidae, has been found in the middle Cretaceous of Europe (Fig. 1). The Dasyproctidae and Neoplatodontidae are fairly closely related to the Dasyproctidae of Europe but not to the hedgehog-like lipotyphla. Oligocene Neoplatodontids were mainly found in North America and the Dasyproctidae are found in the West Indies in the Eocene Cretaceous of North America. Oligocene genera (Aptenodonta and others) previously thought to have given rise to them are now known not to have done so.

Shrews (Soricidae) have been traced back to the late Eocene (Saurinidae) and prior to that their ancestry merges with that of hedgehogs. Fossils forms differ little from their modern counterparts in known structure except in the external subfamily Heteromorphinae in which the jaw is shorter and the teeth somewhat more hedgehoglike than in other shrews. The fossil record of shrews is primarily in Europe and North America.

Moles (Talpidae) are known from both Europe and America as early as the beginning of the Oligocene but at the first known appearance the moles were already well differentiated. The moles show an approach to the hedgehog however. The characteristic rapid digging humerus is one of the most easily identified to the bone in the continental Cenozoic record.

Tenrecs (Tenrecidae) whose recent representatives are confined to Madagascar except for the aberrant subfamily Potamogalini of West Africa have a poorly known fossil record in the early Miocene of East Africa. They are believed to be derivatives of the ancestral Eumecodontidae but the details are unknown.

Another African lineage of problematical lipotyphla is the Chrysochloridae or golden moles. These have a Pleistocene record in South Africa and have recently been found in the early Miocene of East Africa. The relationships of the tenrecs though in early little known of the origin of the peculiar mole-like animals.

Metotyphla The second less well defined group of insectivores Metotyphla contains the living elephant shrews and tree shrews of Africa and South America. These are primate-like (particularly the tree shrews) and are frequently placed in the Primates by workers who regard the hedgehogs as more primitive. The fossil record of elephant shrews goes back to the early Miocene of East Africa. Two subgroups of tupaiaids (*Anagale* and *Anagalops*) have been found in the middle and early Cenozoic of Central Asia and a middle Paleocene North American form (*Eutamias*) may belong to the Tupaiaidea.

Six early Cenozoic families are tentatively referred to the Metotyphla. The Lipotyphla (*Acodon* and others) ranged from middle Paleocene to middle Oligocene in North America (Fig. 2). The most latest known (*Patristes* *Aphronus* and others) were large quadrupeds known from the middle Pliocene to the early Oligocene in North America and early Eocene only in Europe. The *Apatemys* (*Aptemys* *Heteromys* and others) were probably rodent-like forms that ranged from the middle Pliocene to the early Oligocene in North America and from the early Pliocene to the late Eocene in Europe. The *Heteromys* and others probably originated in the Paleocene of North America. The *Zalambdites* (*Zalambdites* only) occur in the Late Cretaceous



Fig. 1. Skull of *lipotyphla* section (AFI JV 5)



erone) *OO* diethyl phosphorothioate] and Trolene [*OO* dimethyl *O* (245 trichlorophenyl) phosphorothioate] for the control of grubs in cat tile began Co Ral is applied externally as a spray and is absorbed and translocated to kill the cattle grubs Trolene is most effective when administered internally Dimethoate [*OO* dimethyl *S* (*N* methylcarbamoylmethyl) phosphorodithioate] shows promise in this area also

Activity of organic phosphate insecticides results from the inhibition of the enzyme cholinesterase which performs a vital function in the transmission of impulses in the nervous system Inhibition of some phenyl esterases occurs also Inhibition results from direct coupling of phosphate with the enzyme Phosphorothionates are moderately active but become exceedingly potent upon oxidation to phosphates

**Other types of insecticides** Synthetic carbamate insecticides are attracting increased interest These include dimetan [55 dimethyldihydroresorcinol dimethylcarbamate] Pyrolan [3 methyl 1 phenyl 5 pyrazolyl dimethylcarbamate] Isolan [1 isopropyl 3 methyl 5 pyrazolyl dimethylcarbamate] pyramat [2 *n* propyl 4-methylpyrimidyl (6) dimethylcarbamate] and Sevin [1 naphthyl *N* methylcarbamate] They are also cholinergic

Insecticides obtained from plants include nicotine [11 methyl 2 (3 pyridyl) pyrrolidine] rotenone the pyrethrins sabadilla and ryanodine some of which are the oldest known insecticides Nicotine was used as a crude extract of tobacco as early as 1763 The alkaloid is obtained from the leaves and stems of *Nicotiana tabacum* and *N. glauca* It has been used as a contact insecticide fumigant and stomach poison and is especially effective against aphids and other soft-bodied insects

Rotenone is the most active of six related alkaloids found in a number of plants including *Derris elliptica* *D. malaccensis* *Lonchocarpus utilis* and *L. urucu* *Derris* is a native of East Asia and *Lonchocarpus* occurs in South America The highest concentrations are found in the roots Rotenone is active against a number of plant feeding pests and has found its greatest utility where toxic residues are to be avoided Rotenone is known also as derris or cube

The principal sources of pyrethrum are *Chrysanthemum cinerariaefolium* and *C. coccineum* Pyrethrins which are purified extracts prepared from flower petals contain four chemically different active ingredients Allethrin is a synthetic pyrethroid The pyrethrins find their greatest use in fly sprays household insecticides and grain protectants because they are the safest insecticidal materials available

**Synergists** The chemicals have little or no insecticidal activity but increase the activity of chemical with which they are mixed especially that of the pyrethrins Piperonyl butoxide ( $\alpha$  [2 (2-butoxyethoxy) ethoxy] 4,5-methylenedioxy 2 propyltoluene) and Sesoxane [acetaldehyde 2 (2

ethoxyethoxy) ethyl 3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl acetate] are two important commercially available pyrethrin synergists

**Formulation and application** Formulation of insecticides is extremely important in obtaining satisfactory control Common formulations include dusts water suspensions emulsions and solutions Accessory agents including dust carriers solvents emulsifiers wetting and dispersing agents tickers deodorants or masking agents synergists and antioxidants may be required to obtain a satisfactory product Insecticidal dusts are formulated for application as powders Toxicant concentration is usually quite low Water suspensions are usually prepared from wettable powders which are formulated in a manner similar to dusts except that the insecticide is incorporated at a high concentration and wetting and dispersing agents are included Emulsifiable concentrates are usually prepared by solution of the chemical in a satisfactory solvent to which an emulsifier is added They are diluted with water prior to application

Proper timing of insecticide applications is important in obtaining satisfactory control Dusts are more easily and more rapidly applied than are sprays However results may be more erratic and much greater attention must be paid to weather conditions than is required for sprays Coverage of plants and insects is generally less satisfactory with dusts than with sprays It is best to make dust applications early in the day while the plants are covered with dew so that greater amounts of dust will adhere If prevailing winds are too strong a considerable proportion of a dust will be lost Spray operations will usually require the use of heavier equipment however Application of insecticides should be properly correlated with the occurrence of the most susceptible stage in the life cycle of the pest involved See ENTOMOLOGY ECONOMIC FUMIGANT INSECT CONTROL BIOLOGICAL INSECTA PESTICIDE [CANE CR.]

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## Insectivora

An order of mammals including such familiar forms as the hedgehog shrew and mole The Insectivora are of ancient origin and are difficult to define they are united by primitive characters that for the most part are primitive for all placental mammals It is quite possible therefore that several stocks of primitive mammals of different origin are included in the order Many fossil insectivores are known some going back as far as the Cretaceous The order is usually divided into 8 superfamily groups 3 of which are extant living insectivores are divided into (1) the tenrec and shrew relatives all Madagascar (1) the golden mole of South Africa (3) the flying squirrel (Frugivora) and their relatives (Furcivora) and Africa (4) the elephant shrew (Macrotrichia) (Africa) and (5) the hedgehog (Soricivora) and in 1





Fig 2 Skull and lower jaw of *Ictops* an Oligocene menotyphlan insectore (After W Scott and G Jepson)

ceous of Mongolia and appear to be primitive relatives of the Leptictidae in which the anterior dentition is aberrant. The *Endotheriidae* (*Endotherium*) occur in the middle Mesozoic of China and may be the most primitive known menotyphlans but they are insufficiently known for meaningful appraisal.

Still a third group the *Deltatheridiidae* most of whose members possess upper teeth bearing only one major cusp or two closely appressed cusps ranging from the Late Cretaceous (Mongolia three genera) to the late Oligocene (North America *Apternodus*) has been placed in the Insectivora in the past but has recently been shown to be more closely related to the Carnivora. See CARNIVORA FOSSILS.

Lipotyphlan insectivores were specialized and gave rise to no other orders of known mammals. The hedgehog supposedly the prime example of a primitive placental mammal since Huxley's day is considerably advanced over early Cenozoic menotyphlans and all living erinaceoid derivatives are even more aberrant. The Menotyphla on the other hand gave rise to many orders and may be regarded as the primitive placental stock some of whose members have survived to modern times to live side by side with lipotyphlan insectivores.

[M.C.M.C.]

## Insectivorous plants

These are plants having variously modified highly specialized leaves which capture and digest insects. The proteins of the digested insects supply nitrogen which otherwise may be unavailable to the plants in the places where they grow. Some times they are also called carnivorous (flesh-eating) plants. See PITCHER PLANT, SUNDEW, VENUS FLY TRAP, see also SARRACENIALES, SECRETORY STRUCTURES PLANT. [P.D.]

## Insolation

The amount of solar radiation which reaches a unit horizontal area of the earth. It is the latitudinal variation of insolation which supplies energy for the general circulation of the atmosphere. Insolation outside the earth's atmosphere depends on the angle of incidence of the solar beam and on the solar constant. The solar constant is the amount of energy which in unit time reaches a unit plane surface perpendicular to the sun's rays outside

the earth's atmosphere when the earth is at its mean distance from the sun. Insolation is measured in langley (ly) or calorie per centimeter squared ( $ly = cal/cm^2$ ). A marked winter gradient of insolation exists from close to 900 ly/day near the Equator to zero in the dark polar areas but in summer the insolation is quite uniform—over 1000 ly/day near the poles compared with about 800 ly/day near the Equator.

The extraterrestrial solar energy is modified by the air, the clouds, and the land and water surface of the earth. Energy of wavelengths shorter than about 2900 angstroms does not reach the surface but is absorbed high in the atmosphere mainly by nitrogen, oxygen, and ozone.

Air molecules also scatter energy in accordance with Rayleigh's law and absorption by ozone, water vapor, and other gases further reduces the solar energy transmitted. See SCATTERING (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION).

Particles always present in the lower atmosphere scatter and absorb energy too. However, clouds affect the extraterrestrial insolation more than any other atmospheric factor. The reflectivity (or albedo) of clouds varies from less than 10 to over 90% of the insolation on them. The albedo will be higher in visible light than in total solar energy for clouds absorb mainly in the near-infrared. The cloud albedo depends on the droplet liquid water content, water vapor content, and thickness of the cloud. It also depends on the sun's zenith distance  $Z$ . The smaller the droplets and the greater the liquid water content, other things being the same, the greater the cloud albedo.

Clouds also alter solar energy. Thick warm (high vapor content) clouds absorb more energy than other clouds and for clouds of pure liquid water droplets the absorption may reach over 30% of the energy incident on the cloud top.

The solar energy measured underneath clouds also depends on the reflectivity of the surface. An overcast which transmits 0.4 of the energy incident on it when the clouds are over a forest will transmit 0.7 of the incident energy when it is located over a highly reflecting snow surface. This is caused by the multiple reflection between the snow and the clouds but the forest still absorbs more energy than the snow.

All the atmospheric effects will multiply the distribution of the solar energy which reaches the surface. For example, the monthly and daily annual albedo shown in the following table.

Latitude of station		Latitude of station			
Latitude		0° N	30° N	60° N	90° N
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Station	Lat	80	40	40	30
Atmosphere	ly	0	0	10	0
Water	ly	410	410	60	10
Surface	ly	0	30	60	10

The facts do not yet indicate how directly or in what manner the genes may influence development of behavior in any animal. Preformationist postulate a direct relationship between genes and behavior. epigeneticists postulate an indirect relationship through many intermediary factors in the organism and developmental stages. The traditional naturalist nurtures ontogeny has a wide and instead the emphasis is on the study of the effects of typical and atypical ranges of specific behavior on evolution and on ontogeny. See HIBERNATION HOARDING BEHAVIOR HYPOTHERMIA MIGRATORY BEHAVIOR PHENOLOGY PHYSIOLOGICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL REPRODUCTIVE BEHAVIOR [TCS]

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### Instrument landing system (ILS)

A fixed beam antenna wave low approach system utilizing high localizer frequency station and a 75 megacycle marker beacon. The system is also known as instrument landing system (ILAS).

In order to make an approach an aircraft must fly a curved path in a line of sight from the localizer to the runway. Such a course can be generated by the intersection of two planes. One of the planes must be vertical and should coincide with the center line of the runway. The second plane should be approximately horizontal and parallel to the runway. The vertical plane is generated by a ground station called a localizer. The horizontal plane is produced by a parabolic dish antenna known as a glide slope station. As the aircraft approaches the runway, it is indicated by the signals received from the localizer. The signal is transmitted by stations called markers (see Fig 1).

**Localizer** The localizer transmits a signal on the 108-112 megacycle band. It is normally located 1000 ft beyond the end of the runway. It feeds a line array consisting of five even

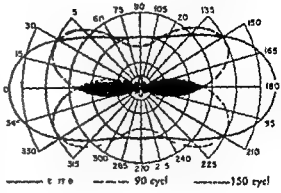


Fig 2 Field pattern of localizer

ly arranged parallel antenna elements. The central element (element 1) in the antenna array is fed with a carrier frequency either with the bands of 150 and 90 cycles. The other elements are fed with only the sideband frequencies resulting from 90- and 150-cycle modulation. The energy feeding the element on one side of the array is 180 degrees out of phase with that feeding the opposite side of the array. In space the patterns appear as shown in Fig 2.

In the aircraft a special receiver is used to detect the localizer signals. Its output is connected to a filter which separates the 90- and 150-cycle signals and compares the amplitude in a bridge circuit. The output of the bridge is applied to actuate the vertical needle of an instrument. This needle (see Fig 3) moves right or left depending on the relative intensity of the 90- and 150-cycle modulation. When the needle is centered it indicates that reception is being obtained on a course directly in line with the center line of the runway. The sensitivity of the system is such that if the deflection of the needle is obtained when the aircraft is only 254 ft off the center line.

Associated with the vertical course pointer instrument is a small additional pointer marked with the letters OFF. This indicator is actuated from the sum of the 90- and 150-cycle signals. Whenever the 90- or 150-cycle signals or both have sufficient intensity this indicator retracts to a position where it is no longer visible. Since the indication of the vertical needle is the same when both signals are equal or both signals are absent the warning flag necessarily informs the pilot which of the indicated needle positions at equal signals is correct.

The effect of deflection from the center may be minimized by reducing the beamwidth of the radiated pattern. The Federal Aviation Administration employs as many as 12 elements forming an array with a length of nearly 80 ft. The resulting pattern produced by the antenna has a width of less than 15 degrees. Since this pattern is incapable of following guidance when an aircraft is off course more than about 17 degrees additional array fed by a second antenna is employed. This second array

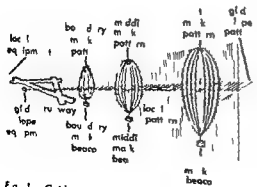


Fig 1 Glideslope system

called motorboating or at ultrasonic frequencies that cannot be heard but cause distortion and a drop in efficiency

Instability is a much more serious problem in higher frequency amplifiers particularly micro wave amplifiers because the excessive positive feedback can be caused by the very small capacitance between two adjacent connecting wires by the capacitance between a component and the metal chassis or even by electron tubes operating at incorrect working voltages See AMPLIFIER

[J MR]

## Instinctive behavior

Any species typical pattern of responses not clearly habitual or acquired through experience This wording is preferred to the traditional term instinct which denotes an innate impulse blindly impelling action appropriate to attaining certain end The adjective instinctive is used by some the Freudians for example to signify certain complex motivated behavior and thus leans toward the classical meaning that of an innate drive or predisposition to given acts

**The problem** In every animal species certain characteristic patterns or systems of adaptive action appear under certain conditions Thus many spiders spin webs typical of their species most birds make species typical nests and leavers build dams and lodges The activities instinctive in the above sense pose important questions concerning their evolutionary basis and genetics their ontogeny and psychology and their adaptive significance

**Criteria** Earlier theorists seeking objective approaches to this problem devised certain criteria of the instinctive in behavior particularly appearance shortly after birth or hatching no essential dependence upon learning and appearance in the individual raised in isolation With further research however the criteria all met with objection For example the first is contradicted by evidence that species typical behavior may appear at stages other than birth the second by evidence that experience and learning often exert their effects in ways resisting clear identification for example embryonic stimulation or prenatal conditioning and the third by the fact that isolation may not exclude extrinsic influence that is stimulation properties of the individual itself which are characteristic of the species But the last two of the criteria still influence many students of comparative animal behavior who synonymize with instinctive such concepts as innate nature and endogenous

**Focal points in research and theory** Objective study demands that the behavior patterns of representative animals be studied analytically and that the assumption be tested Research must cover environmental condition and stimuli the range of environmental variation and organic conditions underlying the development and appearance of the behavior Both longitudinal and cross-sectional

studies of behavioral ontogeny are needed obtained by methods appropriate to the species and its genetic controls

In theorizing all conceptual terms must be evaluated Thus skepticism about the instinct concept centers around traditional dogma which differentiates psychologically between man conceived as the sole possessor of reason and lower animal ruled by instinct This idea is contradicted by much evidence in comparative psychology The related assumption that animals possess an original innate nature modified only secondarily (if at all) by experience is opposed by evidence on behavior development The related idea of sharply distinguishing instinctive from intelligent behavior is in contrast to evidence that instinctive behavior is often plastic in relation to the situation Differences in the nature of such behavior and in its developmental basis doubtless exist on different phyletic levels

Other unsettled controversial points in research and theory concern the role in such behavior of (1) neural organization (2) nonneural organic factors such as hormone and (3) environment and perception together with the relation of the instinct ontogeny (development) Some authorities postulate the existence of innate central neural coordinations to account for the rise and control of instinctive behavior others emphasize the role of peripheral mechanisms interwoven with neural processes in behavioral ontogeny (see BEHAVIOR ONTOGENY OF) Classical distinctions between reflex and instinct are questioned on the ground that such functions may differ in degree rather than in kind Theories distinguishing sharply between instinct and learning meet the objections that neither of the exist sufficiently well under food and that both may vary greatly in their form and in their relation to development on different phyletic levels

Although all behavior is related to heredity the influence of the genes upon behavior is a complex question still unanswered Genes in the chromosomes must exert basic influences on structural growth and through structure on behavior (see BEHAVIOR AND HEREDITY (GENETIC)) Examples of behavior determined or influenced by structure are readily found and a limited structure and characteristic pattern of function in the retina of the eye and perineural frequency or night activity size of certain gland such as the adrenal and degree of docility or of wildness However it is another matter to trace out such principles in the fertilized egg through the embryonic development

The genetics of some of the species predictable behavioral characteristics of animals have been worked out and are impressive The thorough selective breeding of parrot gnatcatcher has been possible for the hybrid and the lack of certain insect like human mammalian distinguishing predictably from the parent in behavioral characteristics of the individual selected parent behavior and reproductive behavior

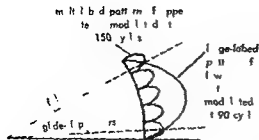


Fig 3 M h d f p d g a g l g d p th by m of t e g field p n s d t d f m tw or t i s p f d d f f t h g h t b e t h g d (HLS)

The power of these beacons is of the order of 3 watts. The vacuum connected antenna systems consist of several in-line full-wave elements which provide the adaptation to logarithmic path and the by the ratio to the arrival angle of the path. The wave is at right angles to the path. In the arrival angle, the antenna is controlled by the flow of current until the precise alignment is reached. The beacon signal is the output of the antenna connected to a variable filter which actuates the light in the measurement of the light employed and the rate of the glow from the thermistors are not particularly defined. See NAVIGATION SYSTEMS ELECTRONIC PRECISION APPROACH RADAR (PAR) (P. 15)

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# Instrument transformer

Electrical transformer specifically designed for use in measurement of current. The primary winding is connected to the circuit to be measured. The secondary winding is connected to a meter or other measuring device. The transformer is designed to provide a ratio of primary to secondary current which is proportional to the ratio of primary to secondary voltage. The transformer is used to measure current in a circuit without having to break the circuit. The transformer is also used to measure voltage in a circuit without having to break the circuit. The transformer is a very important component in many electrical systems. It is used in power distribution systems, in motor drives, and in many other applications. The transformer is a simple device, but it is a very important one. It is a device that is used to transfer energy from one circuit to another. It is a device that is used to change the voltage and current in a circuit. It is a device that is used to protect the circuit from overvoltage and overcurrent. The transformer is a very important component in many electrical systems. It is used in power distribution systems, in motor drives, and in many other applications. The transformer is a simple device, but it is a very important one. It is a device that is used to transfer energy from one circuit to another. It is a device that is used to change the voltage and current in a circuit. It is a device that is used to protect the circuit from overvoltage and overcurrent.

through the winding produces a flux in the core. Since the core links both the primary and secondary windings, a voltage is induced in the secondary circuit. The ratio of primary to secondary voltage is roughly in proportion to the number of turns in the primary and secondary windings. Usually this ratio is selected to produce 115 or 100 volts at the secondary terminal when rated voltage is applied to the primary.

The current transformer differs from the potential transformer in that the primary winding is designed for connection in series with the line. The ratio of primary to secondary current is roughly inversely proportional to the ratio of primary to secondary turns. Usually 5 ampere secondary current is produced by rated current in the primary.

Instrument transformer may differ considerably since the physical construction depends upon the intended application. A potential transformer usually has a magnetic core and a arrangement that is quite similar to that of the conventional power distribution transformer. Since the core operates continuously at the highest flux density consistent with good magnetic design, the core is of the magnetic material. The ferromagnetic material is usually employed for effective heat dissipation.

In a current transformer, the magnetic core density is a function of line current and except for occasional transient conditions caused by line faults, usually very low. The core loss is negligible and the windings are the major source of heat. Therefore the type of construction is generally employed. Special materials such as arc resistant butyl rubber have been developed for winding insulation to ensure very reliability and safety.

Instrument transformer has a marked ratio which differs from the turn ratio and more nearly

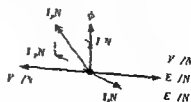
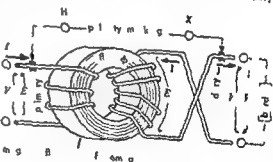
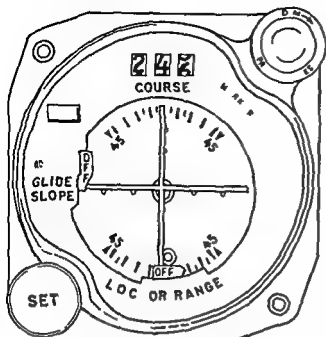


Fig 1 A simplified diagram of a current transformer showing the primary and secondary windings and the magnetic core. The diagram illustrates the magnetic flux in the core and the induced voltages in the windings.



**Fig 3** Modern mass pointer instrument. A marker beacon light is mounted in the upper right hand corner

employs only three elements and is fed by a transmitter operating 10 kilocycles from that feeding the main array. This transmitter and its associated antenna supplies guidance everywhere except in the sector immediately forward. When the aircraft is in the forward sector (see Fig. 4) its receiver is captured by the more powerful signal from the large array and guidance is furnished by this signal with its attendant freedom from site effects. See ANTENNA (AFRIAL).

**Glide slope** The glide slope equipment operates on a frequency of 329.3 to 335 megacycles. This equipment is normally located 150 ft from the approach end of the runway and approximately 450 ft from its center line. Twenty channels are provided in this band. Antenna arrays utilized with the glide slope system are of two general types: the equisignal system and the null type system. Signals from both systems are capable of producing satisfactory indications when received by equipments with similar adjustment. Both systems utilize the earth as a reflecting plane.

**Equisignal system** In the equisignal system the transmitter output is modulated with 90 and

150 cycles. The carrier and sidebands resulting from the 90 cycle modulation are fed to a horizontally polarized antenna located at such a distance above the ground that only one lobe is formed in the space used. This height is approximately 6 ft for glide slope angles of about 2°. The carrier and sidebands resulting from the 150 cycle modulation are connected to an upper antenna located at a height of approximately 28.5 ft. This antenna generates five lobes in the same space as the single lobe of the 90 cycle signal (see Fig. 5).

In the aircraft a special receiver is used to receive the glide slope signal. At the output of the receiver the 90 and 150 cycle are separated by filters and their intensities compared by a bridge circuit. The output of the bridge is connected to a horizontal needle on the instrument previously described (see Fig. 3). The deflection of the needle upward and downward indicates the vertical position of the aircraft with respect to the optimum approach path. As is the practice with the localizer signals an auxiliary OFF indicator light that indicates the centering of the needle is actually caused by the sufficient intensity of the 90 and 150-cycle glide slope signals and not by their alignment.

**Null type system** The pattern of the signal from the lower glide slot antenna is affected by precipitation. To minimize this effect the null type system has been devised. In this system the upper and lower antennas are fed with carrier and sidelobe signals resulting from both the 90- and 150-cycle modulation. The upper antenna is located at a height of approximately 33 ft for a desired vertical angle of approximately 5° and produces two lobes. Because of the reflection phenomena the sidelobe of these two lobes will be in opposition. The lower antenna is located at exactly half the height of the upper antenna thus it produces a single lobe with a maximum at the same angle for which the upper antenna has a minimum. Deviation from the glide slope position causes the 90- or the 150-cycle intensity to increase greatly thus causing the needle to deflect either upward or downward. A deviation of only one half degree from the nominal position results in a strong deflection. The lower antenna is welling at a height of 16.5 ft (rather than 6 ft), relatively unaffected by hang in the height of the ground plane. The precipitation signal will change a 2 ft radius change in path angle less than 0.1°.

Marker beacons T m l t progr al n g t l  
appra l p th there ar thr marker l a n  
Th transmitt r per ting w 5 mega vcl  
c n f n e their radiati n larg ly th erti al d  
m n n u n g n ly m ll ar a f t l h r n t l  
pl n Th ster m k r l at l at a l i t a n e f  
appr ximat ly 4 mil from th l n lary f t l  
air f l and i m l l t e d at f r g n f 400  
ex l A m l l m k r l t f l f r r m l l y  
3.00 ft fr m t l app r ch n l f t l runway and  
i m l l t l w t l a f r g n y f 1300 ycl Th  
inn r m k r n l s e t l t f l n lary f t l air  
f i e l l m l l a t l w t l a f r g n y f 3000 ex l

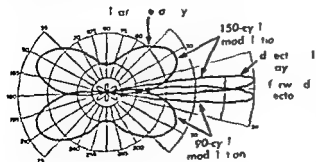


Fig 4 Localize field pattern showing d. c. o. a. l. p. i.  
in fo. forwa. d. ecta. approach. m. d. g. u. d. a. c. e. fo. all  
other sect.

met an el the ppl ed oltag e  $I_p$  t polar by s  
determ ed f r all turns includ ng the econdary

$$E/E = -I_p/I = N_p/N_s$$

In trum nt r nsf m s ha e polarity marks uch  
th t wh n the c r r t enters the H p uary t  
t n s u ly les es th X e ndary and H h  
p u e p t en ual X s al o p u e

Clos the e e nd r y c r e t o f n deal t an forme  
res h s n a e ndary c r e n t with an r m f S n the  
prod e n a magneti s n f c e H

$$S = \lambda$$

$$H = \lambda_s / l$$

he e  $\lambda$  s the number of seco i r y tur and f  
th m gn l cut length

This magn t un f e n must exa tly ancel that  
of the p m r y n e n ex t u o n f l x n n e d e d  
f th ideal t an form r

$$\lambda_s / l = -N_p / I$$

$$I = N_s \lambda$$

Whe n de f n e d a  $-N_p / \lambda$  the foll wing r  
l l n n l x s e d

$$I = N_s E = -E / \lambda \quad \lambda = I / N_s$$

Wh n th co dary r it s l sed the seco d  
r y c r e n t  $I/Z_s$  wh  $Z$  the sec ndary bu  
den (the l d a d s t wh ng) e mp e d l r e t  
anc  $R$  and  $s$  n e l s

An etu l in trum nt t ansformer an be s mu  
l t d by the two k h n n in F g 2a S c m am  
pe e t r n n e d e d m p d u c e e x c i t i n g f l x  
th m gn t c u t A u r e t l s t h r u g h  $N$  tur  
p o d e s th f l t has a mag e t r i g e m p n n t  
l d an eddy r r n t and h y t r e s w a t l s  
c o m p e t i f Th a r m u l a t e d n th e q u a  
l e n t c u t b y a c t a e  $X_m$  and a r i s t a n e  $R_w$   
r p e c t e l y Th e t s f m w n d n g l r e s i t  
n h w b y  $R$  d  $R$  nd mag t l l a k a g  
p r o d u c e s m a l l e t n e s h w b y  $\lambda$  nd  $\lambda$   
Eq l t i t u t l m e a t g t h d a t t r a n s f  
m e h d a w n b y e l f r i g a l l a l e s t th  
e e n d r y a F g 2b o t the p r m a r y in  
F g c

R l ( r e f r e g q a b t s f r m the p r m a r y  
t h c o n d r y a (1) m u l t i p l y b y ( ) d  
d l a d E l y nd (3) d d  $Z_p$   $R$  and  
t b y n

Th s e q l a t r e t s e a l l y s i f a i r y  
t o p r e d t t n f r m p e f s m a a l t h u g h n t h  
t f m th m gn t e s t h r t t c s  
o l n a C a p t i e s t s l e x t T h e s  
h u l d b e v l t e d a t f e q u e n c e s b o 100 p  
d r t u l l y n e c r y t h a n g a l f  $X_m$   
d  $R$  a f t n o f t q u a n t y

A c c u r a c y F r t a l t l m r r e c a e d e  
p e d n th m g n t e d f p r m a r y and e c o n d a r y  
l a g d p s W t h the n d a r y p e r t u t e d  
th l v l a g d p a u e d b y t h x c t g u  
n t t h a b d e t p o b l t d e d o p d  
t o the b d n t b o t h p r m a r y d e d

ary t o b t a i n the o v e r a l l c h a n g e i n p e r f o r m a n c e  
f r e n t a l t r a n s f o r m e r s a r e d e s i g n e d t o h a e l o w e x  
e n g u r e n t and l w w i n d i n g i m p e d a n c e s

In a c u r r e n t r n f o r m r the d i f f e r e n c e b e t w e e n  
the e c o d a r y and p r i m a r y c u r r e n t s i t e e x c i t i n g  
c u r r e n t T h e e f f e r s m a l l e r r o r s i n b o t h r a t i o and  
p h a s e a n g l e e x i s t f u n d a m e n t a l l y T h e s e e r r o r s a r y  
w i t h p r i m a r y c u r r e n t and m a n y c o m p e n s a t i n g  
c h e n e s h a b e n u e d t o i n c r e a s e a c c u r a c y B t h  
t h m a g n e t i n g and o t e r l a u r r e n t a r e k e p t  
u n l l s p e c i a l l a m n a t n m a t e r i a l s u e d i n s p e c i a l  
t e c h n i q u e a r e u e d t r a d c l o e s i n the  
t a n f o r m e r

C o m m e r c i a l i s t u m e n t t r a n s f o r m e r s h a v e e x  
t r e m l y g o d a c u r a t a n d m a n u f a c t u r e r s f r m i h  
t y p a l c u r v e s d e p t i n g a s m a l l e r r o r A m e r i c a n  
S t a n d a r d I n s t r u m e n t T r a n s f o r m e r R e g u l a t o r s and R e a c  
t o s (A S A C 57) p r e s e n t the a c c u r a c y c l a s s e s f o r  
p e c i f i c b u d g e t s and e r r o r s a r e k e p t w i t h i n t h e s  
t a u d a d a c u r a c y r e s f o r t r a n s f o r m e r s o f a g i e n  
c l a s s F o r e v e r y g r e t r a c u r e s t e s t e q u i p m e n t i  
s a v a i l a b l e f r a c c u r a t e m e a s u r i n g r a t i o s and p h a s e  
a n g l e s b y e t h e r d r e c t m e t h o d o r b y c o m p a r i s o n  
w t h s t a n d a r d t r a n s f o r m e r S e E L E C T R I C A L M E A S  
U R E M E N T S [ I F K ]

B i b l o g a p h y I F K a n n r d A p p l i e d E l e c t r i c i t y  
M a s s e n n t s 1956

## Instrumental analysis

The u e o f a n i n s t r u m e n t t o m e a s u r e a c o n p o n e n t  
t o d e t e c t the c o m p l e t e o f a q u a n t i t y e r e a c t i n  
o r t o d e t e c t a c h a n g e i n the p r o p e r t y s i s a s s u m e

The p r e n c e f a m a s u a b l e c h a r a c t e r i s t i c  
b h a s a u n q u e l y d p e d e t u p o the c o n c e n t a  
t o n f i t h s u b t a n e t t d e t e r m e d r e q u i r e d  
T h i s h a r c t e r i s t i c a b e a b o r p t o r e m s n  
i r r a d y r a d i a c t i v i t y x a t n o r r e d c t n b e h a v i  
n u c l e a r o r l e c t r o t e p o p r i e s m a g n e t i c  
b e h a v o r the m a l p o p r i e s T h e c h a r a c t e r i s t i c  
a b l l b e e a s i l y m a s s e d and h l d b e s m p l y  
r e l a t e d t o the a m u t o f m a t e r i a l s n t E x  
a m p l e s o f t h a p p l a t a e the d e t e r m i n a t i o n s  
f r a d i u m i n e s b y r a d i o a c t i v i t y n a l y o f  
t u n g t i n i n t e l b y m a s s s p e c t r o s c o p y f  
i t m A b u t u l o f t a b s o r p t i o n o f c o p p e  
r l l g l m a t e r i a l s b y p o l y g r a p h y I n t w o  
c o m p o n e n t s y s t e m a p o p e r t y o f the s y s t e m a s  
w h o l e c a n f l e n b m s s e d and r e l a t e d t o the  
d e t e d o m p n e l F o r a m p l e a w a t e r e t h y l  
a l c o h l m i x t u r e m a y b e a n a l y z e d b y d e t e r m i n a t i o n  
r e f r a c t i d x m a r e m n t s F o r a m p l e c  
t a n g c o m p o n e n t s a l l e p r a t e m e r e  
m e n t a r e n e c e s s a r y

A n i n t u m t a n b u e d t o d e t e r m i n e the m p l  
t o n o f q u a n t i t y e r t a w h e n i m p l e m e t h  
d s c h a r a c t e r i s t i c a t o r s a r e n o t a p p l i a b l e  
U s u a l l y c h a r a c t e r i s t i c f i f e u s t a c e b e n g  
d e t e m e d f i f e c e n t m e r d  
A n e x a m p l e t h m p e o m t c u t r t m o n o f u l f a t e  
a t h l e a d o n w h e r e t h f i t e c s f l d  
h y o d t h e d p o t s d e t e c t d b y s e l e c t h y c  
e d u t i o n c u r r e n t



represents the true ratio of output to input. However, since the true ratio changes slightly with burden frequency, temperature changes and other factors, the marked ratio must be multiplied by a ratio correction factor to give the true ratio under specified operating conditions.

**Principles of operation.** In instrument transformers approach an ideal transformer and their principle of operation is explained by a study of the ideal. The practical differences from the ideal can then be incorporated and equivalent circuits can be established which allow analysis of most instrument transformer problems.

In the ideal instrument transformer the output voltage or current is exactly proportional in magnitude to and exactly opposite in phase to the corresponding input voltage or current. This means there is no core or winding loss and no resistance or reactance voltage drops. All the flux links both primary and secondary windings.

An alternating voltage applied to the transformer produces a primary current and a resulting alternating flux  $\phi$  in the core. The same alternating emf  $e$  is induced in each primary and secondary turn by the changing flux linkages  $d\phi/dt$ . For a complete winding the induced voltage equals  $-N(d\phi/dt)$  where  $N$  is the number of turns.

The instantaneous flux  $\phi$  in an ideal transformer is sinusoidal with a maximum value of  $\phi_m$  when the applied voltage is sinusoidal.

$$\phi = \phi_m \sin \omega t$$

Therefore

$$e = -\phi_m N \omega \cos \omega t$$

The root mean square (rms) value of the voltage is

$$E = 4.44 \phi_m N f$$

where  $f$  is the frequency. This induced voltage is determined only by the applied voltage and the number of turns, since there are no other voltage drops. Since the induced voltage in the primary  $E_p$

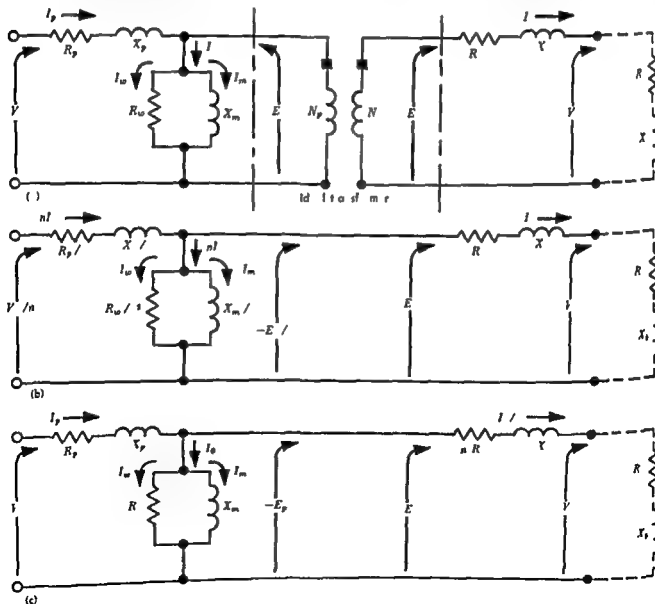


Fig. 2 (a-c) Instrument transformer equivalent circuits. In (b) all quantities are referred to secondary and in (c) they are referred to primary (From I.E.E. Trans. Appl. Elect. Technol. 1956).

(c) they are referred to primary (From I.E.E. Trans. Appl. Elect. Technol. 1956).

used or controlled by the instrument. A flow temperature pressure force displacement electrical conductivity alternating current capacity or electrical capacitance (tan capacitan) or electrical resistance (tan resistivity) color and brightness.

Another method of designation classifying instruments is by the nature of the physical quantity measured. Examples of the method are: x-ray (micropicos diffraction) photometric of various types for various purposes of the frequency instrument or resistances including irradiation heat, viscosity, optical properties, ray, ultrasonic, and alpha particles) magnetic mechanical electrical magnetic hydraulic nuclear acoustic and photonic.

Each of the methods classifying instruments is useful only in a particular instance. A general instrument or instrument system may be many combinations of different principles. A general instrument is a many application. A physical quantity may be measured by a number of different principles. Each of the many principles is a different method. The general method is the physical instrument and the specific method is the method of measurement.

In the application of the method of classification may be found the following: the physical instrument is a combination of different principles. A general instrument is a many application. A physical quantity may be measured by a number of different principles. Each of the many principles is a different method. The general method is the physical instrument and the specific method is the method of measurement.

Scope of instrumentation. The instrument is a combination of different principles. A general instrument is a many application. A physical quantity may be measured by a number of different principles. Each of the many principles is a different method. The general method is the physical instrument and the specific method is the method of measurement.

In many instruments, the physical quantity is a combination of different principles. A general instrument is a many application. A physical quantity may be measured by a number of different principles. Each of the many principles is a different method. The general method is the physical instrument and the specific method is the method of measurement.

radioactive sources, high voltage electrical or ion accelerated wind tunnel and shock tube are all examples of equipment used to provide such auxiliary fields beams or conditions.

The general physical and mathematical principles underlying the operation of instruments and instruments are drawn from all branches of physics and engineering. In instrumentation science is concerned with the development and study of the principles and techniques their application to the design of specific instruments and the utilization of instruments in research engineering testing industrial process measurement defense education and other areas.

All instruments have inherent deficiencies. The deficiencies are badly described by a character and precision characteristic of the instrument. Accuracy is the degree to which the measured value approaches the true value. Precision on which may be regarded as potential accuracy relate to the probability of the instrument to deliver one of the measured and from other nearly equal values when the measurement is performed separately in space and time. A instrument is a combination of different principles. A general instrument is a many application. A physical quantity may be measured by a number of different principles. Each of the many principles is a different method. The general method is the physical instrument and the specific method is the method of measurement.

All instruments have inherent drift, a slow change in performance with time resulting in a change in output. Elements also exhibit drift. The performance of the instrument is a combination of different principles. A general instrument is a many application. A physical quantity may be measured by a number of different principles. Each of the many principles is a different method. The general method is the physical instrument and the specific method is the method of measurement.

Instrument system. A system is a combination of different principles. A general instrument is a many application. A physical quantity may be measured by a number of different principles. Each of the many principles is a different method. The general method is the physical instrument and the specific method is the method of measurement.

Instrumentation. A system is a combination of different principles. A general instrument is a many application. A physical quantity may be measured by a number of different principles. Each of the many principles is a different method. The general method is the physical instrument and the specific method is the method of measurement.

Instrumental analysis does not require the appearance or disappearance of a characteristic. It can be only an increase or decrease. An example is the pH titration of a weak acid in water where the change in hydronium ion concentration is measured using the change in potential of an electrode in the solution.

Automatic instrumental analysis is applicable to any system. For example, an infrared analyzer can be built into a pipe through which a process stream flows. After the relationship between energy absorption and concentration has been established, the device reports the concentration to the control room and in addition makes a record on a graph all without human supervision. Instruments can also be used to remove a measured quantity of sample to titrate a given constituent to clean the titration vessel and to report the analysis with no help other than the providing of standard reagent solutions and the selection of proper equivalence point conditions. [KCS]

## Instrumentation

Designing, manufacturing and utilizing physical instruments or instrument systems for detection, observation, measurement, automatic control, automatic computation, communication or data processing. Loosely, the term instrumentation is also used for the ensemble of instruments and auxiliary equipment used in an experiment, test or process.

**Instruments and instrument systems.** In the broadest meaning of the word, an instrument is any device useful in accomplishing an objective. Scientific and technical instruments (to be differentiated from surgical, musical and legal instruments) are devices used in observing, measuring, controlling, recording, computing or communicating.

Instruments and instrument systems refine, extend or supplement human faculties and abilities to sense, perceive, communicate, remember, calculate or reason. The human senses by which we feel, smell, taste, see, hear, maintain balance, estimate distance, and the like, are refined or extended by such devices as surface roughness and contour gauge, micrometer, chemical analyzer, pH meter, microscope, telescope, gyro-stabilized platform, range finder, and many others. Other instruments such as magnetometers and cosmic ray counters sense or measure physical quantities for which there is no physiological sense developed in human beings. Other instruments (such as cameras, correlator, imulator, and computers) perform functions of transmitting or processing information signals in ways analogous to or going beyond human ability to record, remember, communicate, compare, count, and systematically apply logical operation.

The simplest instrument merely provides a material standard with which the user can compare a physical quantity, as in measurement of length by a yardstick. Transducers are instruments which

transform the quantity under observation (the measurand) into another quantity for which a standard of comparison is more readily or easily available or which may be transformed further, transformed, recorded, or otherwise processed for utilization. A liquid in glass thermometer transforms temperature (the measurand) into position of the liquid in the stem with an attached scale calibrated in temperature units.

The signal—a condition, quantity or magnitude generated by the transducer as representative of the measurand—may be transformed a number of times and in a number of ways in an instrument system. For example, temperature may affect the position of a bimetallic strip whose movement may change the electrical capacitance in a circuit, thereby changing a frequency or voltage which may control the duration of a radiotelemetry signal (pulse duration modulation). The telemetry signal in turn (after transmission, reception and demodulation) may be transformed into current in a galvanometer which changes the position of a light beam on a photographic film for recording or it might be transformed by an analog-to-digital converter into a pattern of signals for use in a computer or the signal might actuate a relay motor or a relay which would adjust the input of heat into the region of the bimetallic strip to control temperature.

Each of the many transformations of a signal throughout an instrument system may utilize some additional lag and often in a lag in accuracy, but may be justified by convenience or necessity and even by improved overall system accuracy or response characteristics.

The following list includes some of the more important functions of instruments or components of instrumentation systems in creating or handling signals (or information or data): excitation, generation, modulation, detection, comparison, amplification, differentiation, integration, attenuation, conversion, switching, counting, timing, programming, correlating, linearizing, correcting, displaying, recording, reducing, analyzing, computing, and measuring. Since all branches of experimental science and technology rely on instrumentation, specialized instruments with a considerable body of knowledge and practice have been developed separately in many fields. Thus, chemical instrumentation, aeronautical instrumentation, medical instrumentation, optical instrumentation, and many other similar terms indicate areas of specialization in instrumentation or professional instruments.

Instruments are a medium for applying a principle to the field of purpose or application, such as navigation in instrument flying in aircraft or oceanographic instrumentation recording tidal fluctuations in instrument systems used in tidal measurements or instrument recording of jet engine performance signal modification and display for controlling the physical quantity or property that it is being measured.

For example the exploitation of space generation of power by nuclear reactions and determination of high temperature properties of material presents new instrument in problems. In general instrumentation on research seeks attain higher accuracy greater use capability of measuring extreme value applicability under various conditions of use and probability of relating changes of effects that occur at extremely high speeds, such as nuclear phenomena. See PHYSICAL MEASUREMENTS.

The trend to wider use of instrumentation for automatic measurement and control in industry is continually accelerating and whole new industry is emerging which will tend to exist without highly sophisticated instrumentation. This trend will continue at a rate limited only by question of cost, safety and reliability. Reliability particularly of electronic components has been a serious problem but will improve as a result of development in solid state circuit elements, new materials, new techniques and more attention to the entire system engineering. See RELIABILITY OF EQUIPMENT.

Another significant trend is the increasing utilization of data processing devices to order computers and similar equipment for automating storage and processing of electronic information and numerical data in banking, accounting and documentation. Similar devices are being adapted for automatic loading and automatic language translation.

Computer theory is being extended to the design of logic machines and self-organizing systems which may simulate not only the processes of learning but also the processes of the person. Very recently on speed and capacity will soon make feasible the use of computer to compute with prediction of financial analysis, meteorological data from a worldwide observation network, to analyze a defense system, trends to a new slogan, requirements and military capabilities, and to predict the probable outcome of military or political events.

In the medical field instrumentation for automatic testing of physiological biochemical and neurological parameters is now being made. Correlation of data to biological data and in the field of medicine, development of diagnostic and identification of patients for localization of disease.

In education, a significant trend is the development of intelligent systems. Supplemental by a computer, the development of other instruments for learning, the development of the efficiency of the whole education system. [WAW] Bibliography: W. G. B. (ed.), *Physics of the Modern Age*, 1st ed., 1950. H. Ch. St. d. R. W. M. S. R. M. Ch. M. S. d. Reg. 1st ed. 1951. D. M. Con. d. ne. 1st ed. 1951. P. S. R. M. S. d. Cont. of H. d. b. ok. 19. B. C. D. L. hook. 1st ed. 1st ed. 1st ed. 1st ed. 1956. C. S. D. per. W. M. L. a. d. S. Lee.

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## Insulation electric

Material of high resistivity used to confine the electric current in a conductor or to may guide them to a useful device. For electric wiring the insulation is limited to fairly flexible types.

### INSULATION REQUIREMENTS

The application of insulations are varied that choice must be made after consideration of the need, a proper price and the weaknesses of the insulation, and the physical circumstances of installation. No material has all the advantages the insulation should be so chosen that is disdastages are not a detriment in the specific application.

Many desirable characteristics are permanent. The reference properties of the material after a period of years in the environmental conditions must also be known. New materials require time to develop their usefulness.

**Electrical requirements.** These vary with the specific application of the material depend upon the application. The important properties of insulation are discussed below. See DIELECTRICS.

**Resistance.** Commercially measured as insulation resistance is based on a direct-current measurement of the flow into the insulation site of electricity of 1 m. The current should be small and the insulation resistance large. In itself it is not perhaps the most important characteristic but it is a ratio of the insulation to the current in low insulation resistance materials and weathering conditions. It is a measure of the insulation and uniformity in the material. If in service it should be a measure of the insulation resistance. It is a measure of the insulation resistance.

**Dielectric strength.** The property determines the ability of the material to resist puncture by electric potential. It is directly affected by weathering, aging, high temperature by time and heat and by the extent of moisture.

**Potential.** This is a measure of the power to the insulation and should be low. A rapid increase in the insulation resistance is important in high voltage cables but is important in low voltage cables. The properties used for insulation.

to initiate corrective action. Since the output measurement is used to control the input, such systems are called closed-loop or feedback control systems. For discussion of the use of instrumentation in control systems see CONTROL SYSTEMS, SERVO MECHANISM.

If the response characteristics of the instrument system are not appropriately matched to those of the controlled system, the parameter of the combined system may exhibit transient or sustained oscillation. The general problem in design or analysis of automatic control systems is to determine and obtain the instrument performance which will ensure the optimum speed of response consistent with stability. For linear systems (those for which output response is proportional to input) this may be done analytically. Texts on instrument engineering, cryomechanism, or mechanics describe the several mathematical procedures commonly used for analysis of simple instrument measuring systems and control systems. For non-linear system, digital computers may provide solution of acceptable accuracy.

Analogue computers or simulator provide rapid nonanalytic solution for behavior of linear (or to some extent nonlinear) systems under various conditions. Both types of computer are not only used to study systems but are increasingly included as part of systems whose behavior they predict and control. Digital computers also find major uses in rapid storage, retrieval and processing of data of all type and for solving scientific problems of great complexity. See COMPUTERS.

The entire field of military technology rests largely upon modern development in instrumentation, many of which in fact resulted from military need. Radar, sonar and infrared detector are used not only for detection but also in combination with computer and control systems for automatic guidance of weapon. Homing torpedoes, self-guided missile and computer-controlled anti-missile are examples of the tactical changes in method of warfare resulting from instrumentation whereby warheads are automatically guided rather than merely thrown at the enemy.

In instrumentation, the measurement of nuclear radiation is the basis for all military and peaceful use of atomic energy and radioactive isotopes.

Thus the scope of instrumentation is not only universal, it may well be called a common denominator of all of science and technology.

**Related fields.** Because of the universal scope of instrumentation, there are many fields that are closely related.

**Systems engineering.** This term is applied to the design or analysis of process or machine systems as well as to instrumentation. In instrumentation systems primarily involve the flow of signal (information) whereas the physical system or process involve primarily the flow of energy, material, or both. Since the same general law applies to all physical systems and since instruments are essentially in-

strumentation, a large and necessary part of systems engineering in any field such as aircraft, missile, oil refining, steel rolling and communications are SYSTEMS ENGINEERING.

A fundamental part of instrumentation engineering relates to the theory of automatic control and to the practical application of automatic control equipment.

**Information theory.** This body of mathematical and logical knowledge developed for analysis of the efficiency and the limitation of communication systems is broadly applicable to all types of signals or data and is thus important to instrumentation. In any instrument or system the output signal varies to some extent in an unpredictable manner because of disturbing influence. Some of which may be inherent in the instrument or system. The undistorted signal is often referred to as noise. The ratio of the magnitude of the signal to that of the noise is important as an indication of possible error limits and detectability limits. The frequency range of signals that can be utilized by an instrument system determine the amount of useful measurement data that can be handled per unit of time. The fundamental definitions of information, frequency bandwidth, noise channel capacity and their interrelations are all involved in information theory, thus this field is clearly of basic importance to instrumentation and particularly to communication in instruments and systems. See INFORMATION THEORY.

**Human engineering.** This is frequently involved in instrumentation. To be operative or to provide information to an operator in instrumentation systems should be designed to take account of his physiological and psychological characteristics. In design of displays or manipulative elements, visual acuity and body characteristics must be considered in analysis or design of systems in which a human being provides a link between measurement and control, the reaction time and feedback capability of the human being and his susceptibility to fatigue and to environmental factors must also be taken into account. See HUMAN ENGINEERING.

**Cybernetics.** Cylonic relates to the field of man-machine communication and the application of information theory to response and automatic control in physical systems. It is thus an interdisciplinary field, partly included and partly included in the field of instrumentation. See CYBERNETICS.

**Automation.** This recently introduced term still has various meanings but generally implies the application of automatic control to an operation or process. A term applied to economic and technological control implies the modernization of industrial operations to utilize modernized equipment and instrumentation for automatic control measurement and data handling to a greater degree. See AUTOMATION.

**Trends in instrumentation.** Although in common and technological terms, instrumentation is not a new creation, it is a rapidly growing field and is



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Thus the scope of instrumentation is nearly universal; it may well be called a common denominator of all of science and technology.

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neering is a large and necessary part of systems engineering in any field such as aircraft, machine tool, refining, steel rolling, and communications. See SYSTEMS ENGINEERING.

A fundamental part of instrument systems engineering relates to the theory of automatic control and to the practical application of automatic control equipment.

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**Human engineering.** This is frequently involved in instrumentation. To be operated by or to provide information to an observer, instrumentation systems should be designed to take account of his physical, physiological, and psychological characteristics. In design of dials, displays, or manipulative elements, visual acuity and body characteristics must be considered in analysis or design of systems in which a human being provides a link between measurement and control, the reaction times and decision capabilities of the human being and his susceptibility to fatigue and to environmental factors must also be taken into account. See HUMAN ENGINEERING.

**Cybernetics.** Cybernetics relates to the field of man-machine communications and the application of information theory to response and automatic control in physiological systems. It is thus another field which partly includes and is partly included in the field of instrumentation. See CYBERNETICS.

**Automation.** This recently introduced term still has various meanings but generally implies the application of automatic controls to an operation or process. As a term applied to economic and technological trends, it implies the modernization of industrial operations to utilize mechanized equipment and instruments for automatic control measurement and data handling to a greater degree. See AUTOMATION.

**Trends in instrumentation.** Advances in science and technology make ever increasing demands on instrumentation. Every new method of investigation

Characteristics	Polystyrene	Polyethylene	Polyvinyl chloride	Mylar	Nylon	Teflon	Kel-F
Insulating value	High	High	Can be anything	Good	Fair	Good	Good
Dielectric strength	Good	Good	Can be anything	Good	Fair	Good	Good
Power factor	Low	Low	Relatively high	Low	High	Low	Low
Dielectric constant	Low	Low	Medium	Low	Medium	Medium	Medium
Chemical resistance	Good	Good	Good to fair	Good	Good to fair	Good	Good
Water permeability	Good	Good	Good to fair	Good	Fair	Good	Good
Resistance to light	Good if black	Fair	Can be good	Fair to good	Good if black	Good	Good
Flammable	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Tensile strength	Good	Good	Good	High	Good	Good	Good
Resistance to deformation	Fair	Good	Fair	Good	Good	Good	Good
Abrasion resistance	Good	Fair to good	Good	Good	Good	Good	Good
Stiffness	Considerable	Extreme	Anything desired		Considerable	Considerable	Considerable
Cost	Low	Low	Low	Relatively high	Fair	High	High

**Polyvinyl chloride** This plastic is used today in a wide range of applications and is a very good material for making pipes, tubes, and other products. The table should be interpreted with the following in mind: first, the strength of the material is not uniform; second, the strength is not uniform; and third, the strength is not uniform.

**Mylar** This is a very useful material for making films, papers, and other products. It is a very good material for making films, papers, and other products.

**Nylon** This is a very useful material for making fibers, fabrics, and other products. It is a very good material for making fibers, fabrics, and other products.

**Teflon** This is a very useful material for making coatings, films, and other products. It is a very good material for making coatings, films, and other products.

**Kel-F** This is a very useful material for making films, papers, and other products. It is a very good material for making films, papers, and other products.

**Thermosetting materials** These are materials that, once set, cannot be melted again. They are used in a wide range of applications, including making plastics, composites, and other products.

**Rubber** This is a very useful material for making tires, seals, and other products. It is a very good material for making tires, seals, and other products.

**Silicone** This is a very useful material for making coatings, films, and other products. It is a very good material for making coatings, films, and other products.

**Fluorocarbon** This is a very useful material for making coatings, films, and other products. It is a very good material for making coatings, films, and other products.

**Acrylic** This is a very useful material for making coatings, films, and other products. It is a very good material for making coatings, films, and other products.

**Epoxy** This is a very useful material for making coatings, films, and other products. It is a very good material for making coatings, films, and other products.

**Urethane** This is a very useful material for making coatings, films, and other products. It is a very good material for making coatings, films, and other products.

ral or synthetic rubber but the latter should yield more uniform and reproducible results.

Rubber compounds can be made with good mechanical properties and good electrical properties.

powdered and sieved, and with resistance to chemicals, weathering, and moisture. They are easy to handle and install.

Usually they need protection from mechanical abuse. They have a dielectric strength of 35,000 V/mil. The glass transition temperature is usually above the operating temperature.

Butyl This synthetic rubber has not been used to the highest extent because of its dielectric strength is less than that of the natural rubber. It will not harden under usual conditions. Aggressive chemicals are resistant to them. Some compounds do not deteriorate with every use.

Neoprene This is a very useful material for making tires, seals, and other products. It is a very good material for making tires, seals, and other products.

Styrene-butadiene This is a very useful material for making tires, seals, and other products. It is a very good material for making tires, seals, and other products.

Isoprene This is a very useful material for making tires, seals, and other products. It is a very good material for making tires, seals, and other products.

Butadiene This is a very useful material for making tires, seals, and other products. It is a very good material for making tires, seals, and other products.

Acrylic This is a very useful material for making coatings, films, and other products. It is a very good material for making coatings, films, and other products.

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usually increases with rise in temperature of the insulation

**Dielectric constant** Also known as SIC (specific inductive capacity) this is a measure of the charge required to bring the apparatus up to voltage compared to that required if air were substituted for the insulation. It is principally of importance in communication circuits and low values are preferred except for capacitors where high dielectric constants provide high energy storage in a small volume. See DIELECTRIC CONSTANT

**Temperature requirements** These vary with each application and installation. A compromise is usually necessary because an insulation good for high temperatures has other shortcomings and the same for low temperatures. The Electrical Code and American Institute of Electrical Engineers Standards give limiting temperatures at which specific insulations shall be used. This means the final temperature of the insulation which is the result of the temperature of the surrounding medium, usually air, and the heat from the current in the cable conductor. Temperature should be maintained at a value at which the insulation will last for a long time. Most insulations are stiffer and more likely to crack on bending at lower temperatures and conversely to soften at higher temperatures. This applies to temperatures applied for short duration. Higher temperatures applied for long duration usually harden and possibly embrittle insulation although some new rubber compounds soften and become puttylike. In both cases the value of the insulation is impaired and electrical failure may occur if bent in the first case or due to its own weight in the latter case.

Where a nonflammable cable is required some other desirable property must usually be sacrificed.

**Mechanical requirements** Normally electric insulation should be designed to hold electricity not to withstand mechanical abuse. For the necessary rough treatment that may occur in installation of cable braids, tapes or sheaths are employed over the insulation as a protection. These can be designed to withstand the mechanical treatment likely to occur and the insulation can be designed for optimum electrical functions. Of course the insulation should not break at the low temperatures anticipated or soften at the high ones. Some materials will even flow at temperatures not usually considered high; these are unreliable as insulation.

**Chemical requirements** These are usually determined by the specific application intended for the wire. Sometimes resistance to oil or liquids, gas fume, or airborne powders in chemical plants is required. It is usually the mechanical protection of the insulation that must be designed to withstand this environment rather than the insulation and each case needs special consideration.

Chemicals in the soil around buried cables or in ducts and manholes around duct cables can cause deterioration. This again usually occurs on the mechanical protection of the cable but may ap-

ply to the insulation itself. About the only guide for choice is to use an insulation that has proven by many years of service its suitability for such conditions.

Water can have disastrous effects if it enters the insulating medium of a cable. This is a peculiarly true with paper insulation, either dry or oiled or with varnished cambric. Some compounds of rubber can hold appreciable amounts of water without harm to their electrical properties but others are seriously affected. In many cases water absorption as a criterion of serviceability of an insulation is exaggerated and undue importance may be given to it. Its importance actually depends on its effect on the life or the electrical properties needed for the specific application of the insulating material.

Many seemingly impervious materials have been used for keeping water and oil or hydrocarbons away from insulation with the later discovery that these liquids can pass through the barrier without adversely affecting it. It is thought electric potentials sometimes aid in the transfer and penetration by the liquid.

## **FLEXIBLE INSULATION**

Insulating materials are often only one ingredient in a compound finally applied to a wire as insulation. An infinite variety of mixtures can result all based on the same primary ingredient which often gives its name to the class. Still the properties of the compounds may be so different as not to deserve grouping as a certain class. Such compounding may make a poor material or an outstanding one both with the same major ingredient. In general insulations are either thermoplastic or thermosetting. In others the effect of heat has no function. There are many insulating materials only the more important are discussed here.

**Thermoplastic insulation** Materials in this class can be softened by heating; they can be extruded and when cool return to their original condition. The general characteristics of these materials are compared in the table.

**Polyethylene** This is particularly important for high frequency applications, however it has shortcomings. It melts at about 110°C so that short circuits or overloads of current on a cable may cause the insulation to run off. It is very stiff and in thick walls on wire may prove too stiff for usefulness. Cases of cracking have occurred in service mostly due to certain gases or hydrocarbons. Newer higher molecular weight polyethylene is designed to avoid this but may lose some of the advantage of the original polyethylene. See POLYOLFIN RESINS.

**Polystyrene** This also has exceptional electrical properties but it must be used in thin film or where it will not be bent. It has thick walls are stiff and brittle. Its electrical properties are less affected by change of temperature than most insulations. See POLYVINYL RESINS.

which stand by during manufacturing but only  
 have the insulation applied to the form  
 of enamel or cotton etc. but for  
 large machines the strands may be wrapped with  
 glass fiber tape or mica paper tape with  
 paper in the case of filled transformer. The  
 turn insulation is formed by wrapping the conduc-  
 tors with tape or by interposing partitions of  
 the material. The insulation to ground may be  
 formed of rigid poles in which the coils are  
 wound for small transformers and field or  
 machine transformer latters made of Mylar or  
 of a cellophane paper mica rigid cloth or a  
 combination of them in smaller transformer machines.  
 For large rotating machines the stator windings  
 with flexible heater tape and the stator windings  
 are painted with insulating varnish. The coils may  
 be molded in a press or by ramming in a  
 liquid under heat and pressure. The insulation is  
 applied in erippling layers deposited in  
 and baked to make the surface of the paths  
 a desirable surface.

Rigid insulation systems have an almost in-  
 finitely long life span depending on the size  
 type and the design of the equipment. Any  
 one piece of equipment may be a  
 type of material many different forms and  
 components for different systems. After ele-  
 mentary and compatible material the  
 design must provide for application and as-  
 sembly as well as the mechanical and  
 electrical properties. The material must be  
 able to stand the high temperature and  
 the overloading machine life temperature  
 and the mechanical properties with time and  
 moisture.

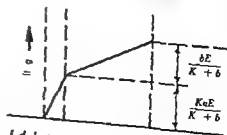
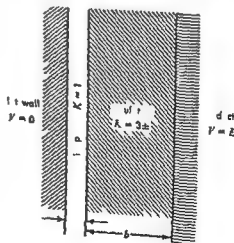
**Voltage requirements** Usually calculated on  
 the basis of the insulation type required to  
 withstand the test voltage twice the up-  
 ply voltage plus 1000 lb. Additional test  
 voltage required for impulse tests may be  
 required to check the insulation and the  
 high voltage machine test results. The  
 insulation test voltage is determined by  
 the design of the machine and the insulation  
 does not test a type.

A detailed design of the electrical  
 machine path made of different materials in  
 series or parallel for the insulation of  
 the different parts of the machine. The  
 insulation level is so that the insulation  
 is between the insulation and the stator  
 winding. The insulation thickness may have  
 a bearing on the time that the insulation  
 will last. The breakdown at 80 lb./  
 mil. thickness of the insulation may be ex-  
 pected to last for a period of about 30  
 hours. The insulation thickness is about 30  
 ft. mil. for the stator winding. The  
 insulation thickness is about 30 ft. mil.  
 for the stator winding. The insulation  
 thickness is about 30 ft. mil. for the  
 stator winding. The insulation thickness  
 is about 30 ft. mil. for the stator winding.

**Temperature requirements** Organic insulating  
 materials are subject to physical changes

when exposed to high temperature. The rates of  
 chemical reactions such as oxidation of cellu-  
 lose are doubled and therefore the useful life of most  
 insulation systems is roughly halved for each 10 C  
 increase in temperature. Insulating materials are  
 grouped in temperature classes O A B F and H  
 with nominal continuous temperature limits of 90  
 105 130 155 and 180 C. respectively. Various  
 treated cotton paper enamel and most organic  
 materials are included in Class A whereas glass  
 fiber and built-up mica with a small proportion of  
 organic material are in Class H. Some of the best  
 organic film materials have been known by test to  
 be suitable for Class H temperatures. Silicone  
 impregnated and treated Class B material and  
 fluorocarbons such as Teflon are in Class H. The  
 thermal resistance of usual insulating materials is  
 drop of about 200 C/(watt)(in.) of heat flow  
 and allow a must be made for the temperature  
 difference across the insulation thickness. The  
 standard permissible ratings from the nominal tem-  
 perature limits depending on the size and type of  
 equipment and the intended service.

**Insulation tests** Service experience is required  
 to prove that an insulation system is fully satisfac-  
 tory for life tests on materials and a complete  
 system will show the time needed for the reval-  
 uation. The American Institute of Electrical Engi-  
 neers provides a number of test procedures for  
 the purpose of these procedures for exposure of sam-  
 ples of insulating materials or models to peated  
 cycles of high temperature and voltage check un-  
 til failure. By plotting logarithmic life



Effect of dielectric material on the insulation life

**Epoxy resins** These are used as insulation of joints. A liquid and a powder are mixed and heat is given off. The chemical action sets it to a solid which is not flexible but has good electrical and mechanical properties.

**Heat insensitive insulations** The effect of heat has no function in establishing the properties of the insulating materials in this group.

**Paper** Paper insulation in multilayers oil impregnated and protected from moisture by a lead sheath is an old standby. It is popularly used at voltages over 15 000 volts. It has good electrical characteristics which change with age. Its weakness is the lead or similar sheath which must be in perfect condition to keep the cable dry and operating. Lead is subject to crystallization and electrolysis which can perforate it.

**Varnished cambric** This is a series of thin layers of varnished cloth. Its electrical properties are not as good as paper oil cable and it requires the same moisture and mechanical protection usually a lead sheath. It is used at lower voltages.

**Nitrogen gas** This is used to a considerable extent as an insulation for high voltage applications. It is used under pressure in a pipe containing the conductor.

**Magnesium oxide** This is a novel insulation for low voltages but rather high temperatures. It is enclosed in a copper tube and carries the conductor at its center. It is good for wet and dry locations and in special applications it may be used to 250 C.

**Asbestos** Besides its heat insulating properties asbestos is an electric insulator to some extent particularly if impregnated with some waxlike substance. It usually requires a water impervious sheath and is used for relatively low voltages. It is also used in combination with plastics or varnished cambric. See ASBESTOS. [A S D]

## RIGID INSULATION

Besides their use as flexible coverings for wires and cables insulating materials are employed in molded or built up form as components of rigid structures. This rigid insulation must provide mechanical strength and stability of form as well as a dielectric barrier. Mica, glass, porcelain and the thermosetting resins are the principal rigid insulating materials but these may be used in combination with any of the flexible materials.

**Mica** A mineral of finely laminated structure and easy cleavage mica flakes are flexible, tough and highly resistant to heat. Mica is most often employed in the form of splittings about 1 mil thick which may be snowed on to sheets of thin paper or glass fiber bonded with a suitable varnish and applied in multiple layers of tape. Finely divided mica is used with epoxy or other resins to make a mica paper without separate backing. Ground mica is used as a filler in molded insulation. See MICA.

**Glass** An amorphous material, glass ordinarily consists of a mixture of silicates, borates, phos-

phates and other materials with silica  $\text{SiO}_2$  forming 50-90% of the total content. It is employed in a great variety of compositions. Blown and cast forms are used. Glass yarn or cloth made of fibers 0.2-0.3 mil in diameter is also employed. See GLASS AND GLASS PRODUCTS.

**Porcelain** This is a hard, brittle and impervious material made from feldspar, quartz, clay and other minerals. The materials are finely ground intimately mixed in a liquid state, molded into the desired shape while plastic, dipped in glaze and fired at a high temperature. See PORCELAIN.

**Uses of rigid insulation** Rigid electrical insulation is used for supporting conductors and spacing them apart in a gas or liquid environment where the air or other surrounding medium is relied upon to provide the needed dielectric strength except at the supports. Here the chief requirements are high surface creepage resistance and high strength to withstand the imposed mechanical forces including the shocks from short circuit currents. The insulation must be impervious to water so that it will retain its high electrical resistance when washed or exposed to the weather and for the higher voltages it must be able to withstand arc discharges over the surface.

For the highest voltages as for power transmission lines the conductors are hung on strings of suspension insulators or supported on bushings. These are made of glazed porcelain with a series of skirts to lengthen the creepage paths and provide maximum resistance to flash over. For medium voltages the bushings may be made of glass or molded plastics.

For low voltages as for industrial control equipment and household appliances and where many conductors need to be closely spaced thermosetting plastic compounds are used chosen for their structural rigidity, high surface creepage resistance, ease of manufacture and low cost. Besides a wide variety of synthetic compounds such as phenolic, melamine and polyester resins composite materials such as phenolic resin coated cotton or asbestos fabric and impregnated wood are used.

When the conductor spacing is too small for reliance on the dielectric strength of the surrounding gas or liquid as in transformers and rotating machines the rigid insulation must form a sealed barrier of high dielectric strength over the entire conductor surface. The requirements are especially severe for the slot embedded conductors of rotating machines where the insulation thickness must be held to a minimum and where part of the surface may be exposed to high velocity cooling air often containing fine particles of conducting material such as carbon dust.

In general the windings of electric machines consist of stranded conductors arranged in series or parallel connected coils or both each with one or more turns. Thus three principal kinds of insulation are required for apparatus windings for the strand, for the turns and for the complete coil. The strand insulation must be flexible enough to

re ch a val d term ned by radi tion a d sold  
 cond ition A few m teri ls ha e such fin pores  
 that at atmo spheric p e ure their d mens ons are  
 small r tha the me n f e p th of a r Such in ul  
 to e conduct itie l th n th t f il air  
 [C.B.R.R.]

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### Insulation resistance testing

The test ng of the ele tri al e i stance f d le t i  
 m te al i i sul t r Insul t n resistance s  
 m te ad in megohms It o st of tw cnt but  
 ing fa to (1) the ol m resistance results g  
 f om the e t ce to curre t flow thr ough the l  
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 an edu to the re tance to current flow er the  
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 a te th m a gl m a urem nt If b sic in  
 l g p o p e r t a f a m a t e r i a l a r b e n g t u d e d  
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 f i g t n a n e m p h s i z e n e f f o r t h o t h e r  
 so that re able evaluat ng d ta of ch f e t o r  
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If the nd tions f m urement do s t p rmit  
 h co t l as the ch ck g of in ulat on  
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 ng d t a d p h y c l r g m n t must be  
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 p o d u e the d e r d l a t of the w n d n O f  
 t e n o n l y t h t a l n s u l t a r r e s t a n c e i s r q u i r e d  
 n d i d d u l a l u a t i o n of t h f m n d l m e  
 f e c t n e e d o t b e m d E p t o the m p l e s t  
 f m u e m n t u c h t h e l a n of c a p  
 a t i t m i l r t h p o i n t - t o - p i n t i t a n e f  
 a w i t h u f a g a d c t i s s e t a l f o  
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Th t ta al u e f the p p r e n t l a  
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 t h h i d t t r a t h r t h a n a p p a n t m  
 l a t

R e c u f t h d u t e c e s s a r y t p c  
 f y f l l i t t n d t o f t e s t v o l t g t m f  
 r e t n r r n t m o f u s e t a f t e a p p l e  
 t m f l g t m p e t h m d t y f t r y p  
 t t e s t n d s t t i f a p a t n e h a g A l o  
 f t h m p l m t b e g u e d i t m y b e n e c e s s a r y  
 t t s e a h g h l y t e d p o s a p p l y 5

### DIELECTRICS INSULATOR ELECTRICAL RESISTANCE ELECTRICAL RESISTIVITY ELECTRICAL

**Guarded deflection method** This method for measuring insulat n resistance illustrated by Fig 1 uses the [time] ammeter method (see RESISTANCE MEASUREMENT) The voltage is mea ured with a voltmeter of su table range the current i meas ured by a calibr ted gal anometer with an Ayrt on sl unt for r nge exten sion or a vacu m tube dc am pl ier calibrated as a m cromicroammeter with ap prop r te mult pliers

A mod fication of this method which perm ts it e compar so of a high re i stance standard with th i sulati n re stance under test is shown in Fig 1b In th s meth d neither the test volt g nor the curr nts need be kn wn since the t e t r e s i t a n c e i s p r o p o r t i o n a l t o t h e c o m p a r i s o n s t a n d a r d a n d t h e r a t i o of two currents

In ea h of the e w r u n t s the r e q u i r e d g u a r d i n g of the t e t e g u p m e t i s shown by dotted line with the guard f the am ple c n n e c t e d t o the e q u i p m e n t g u a r d I t s e s s e n t i a l t h a t a l l of t h e q u p m n t h o w n w i t h t h e g u r d l i n e b e m o u n t e d o n t h g u s d p l a t e o r c i c u i t H w e v e r t h e i n s u l a t i o n r e q u r e m n t s b e t w e e g u a d a n d m e a s u r i n g c i r c u i t a r e n o t s e v e r e T h i i n u l a t i o n s h u n t s t h e i t e r n a l r e s i t n e e of t h m e a s u r i n g c i r c u i t n d t h e r f r e n e e d o l y b 10-100 t m e s t h a l u e t m i n i m u e t h e e r r o r f o r t h s s o u c e I f a n e l e t r o n c m i c r o m m e t e r i s u e d i t c i r c u i t s i n c l u d i n g s u c h

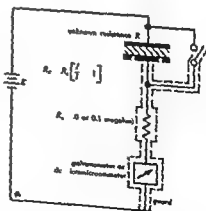
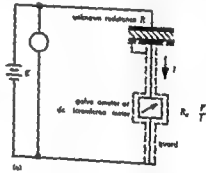


Fig 1 C i c t f g d d d R e t m e m t  
 of (1) V o l t m e t - a m m t m t h o d  
 (b) C m p o m m t h o d

absolute temperature on an inverse scale and extrapolating back to the proposed operating temperature the life expectancies of alternative materials and systems may be compared.

[PLA]

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AIEE *Test Procedure for Evaluation of Systems of Insulating Materials for Random Wound Electric Machinery* AIEE Publ 510 1956 A E Knowlton (ed) *Standard Handbook for Electrical Engineers* 9th ed 1957 G L Moses *Electrical Insulation* 1951

### Insulation heat

Materials whose principal purpose is to retard the flow of heat. Thermal or heat insulation materials may be divided into two classes: bulk insulations and reflective insulations. The class and the material within a class to be used for a given application depend upon such factors as temperature of operation, ambient conditions, mechanical strength requirements, and economics.

Examples of bulk insulation include mineral wool vegetable fibers 85% magnesia calcium silicate with asbestos vermiculite silica aerogel diatomite and insulating fire brick They retard the flow of heat breaking up the heat flow path by the interposition of many air spaces and in most cases by their opacity to radiant heat

Reflective insulations are usually aluminum foil or sheets although occasionally a coated steel sheet an aluminized paper or even gold or silver surfaces are used. Their effectiveness is due to their low emissivity (high reflectivity) of heat radiation.

Thermal insulations are regularly used at temperatures ranging from a few degrees above absolute zero as in the storage of liquid hydrogen and helium to 3000 F in high temperature furnaces. Temperatures of 4000-5000 F are encountered in the hotter portions of missiles and rockets the temperature exposure lasting only minutes or seconds so that insulations that would be destroyed by protracted exposure to these temperatures are successfully used.

**Heat flow** The distinguishing property of bulk thermal insulation is low thermal conductivity. Under conditions of steady state heat flow the following empirical equation describes the heat flow through a material

$$\frac{q}{A} = k \frac{A(\theta_2 - \theta_1)}{l}$$

where  $q$  = time rate of heat flow  $A$  = area  $\theta_2$  = temperature of colder side  $\theta_1$  = temperature of warmer side  $l$  = thickness or length of heat flow path and  $k$  = thermal conductivity representative values being listed in the table For a given thickness of material exposed to a given temperature

### Thermal conductivities of selected solids

M t l	D t y lb/ft	Temp F	Co d t y H Bt / ( ) (h) (ft) (F)
Asbest cement			
bo d	120	75	4
C tt fiber	08 0	75	0 6
Miner l wool fib o			
ock l g o gl ss	15-40	75	027
In l ting board			
wood or cane fbe	15	75	03
Fo m d pl t cs	16	75	0 9
Gl			36- 3
Ha d woods typical	45	75	110
Softwoods, typ cal	3	75	080
C ll l gl ss	9	75	040
F d (1%)			
m st e nt nt	100	40	45
S lty cl y l am ( 0%)			
m sture co tent	100	40	95
Gypsum or pla t #			
board	50	75	11

Fom Ame ica Soc ty fll tng Rfrg tng d  
A Condt n ng Eng eers, H t g b lling nd A  
Condt n g G d 19 9  
† Typ l ut bl f gn gc lc lt

difference the rate of heat flow per unit area is directly proportional to the thermal conductivity of the material

In the unsteady state or transient heat flow the density and specific heat of a material have a strong influence upon the rate of heat flow. In such cases thermal diffusivity  $\alpha = k/\rho C_p$  is the important property. Here  $\rho$  = density and  $C_p$  = specific heat at constant pressure. In the simple case of one dimensional heat flow through a homogeneous material, the governing equation is

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \alpha \left. \frac{d^2\theta}{dx^2} \right|_0$$

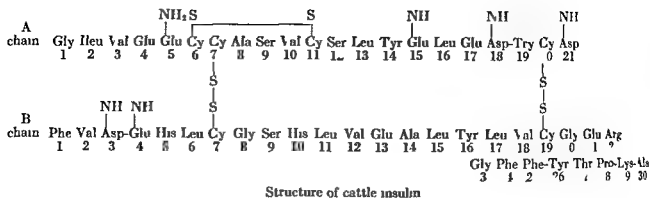
where  $t$  = time and  $x$  is measured along the heat flow path from 0 to  $l$

**Thermal conductivity** In general thermal conductivity is not a constant for the material but varies with temperature. For metals and other crystalline materials conductivity decreases with increasing temperature. For glasses and other amorphous materials conductivity increases with temperature. Bulk insulation materials in general behave like amorphous materials and have a positive temperature coefficient of conductivity.

Thermal conductivity of bulk insulation depends upon the nature of the gas in the pores. The conductivities of two insulations identical except for the gases filling the pore spaces will differ by an amount close to the difference in the conductivity of the two gases.

Increasing the pressure of the gas in the pores of a bulk material has little effect on the conductivity even with pressure of several atm. The decrease in the pressure has little effect until the mean free path of the gas is in the order of magnitude of the dimensions of the pores. Below this pressure the conductivity decreases rapidly until it





1924 demonstrated that the anterior pituitary plays an important role in the etiology of the diabetic state of an organism. See PANCREAS

The biological potency of insulin preparations is given in terms of an international unit (IU) defined as the hormonal activity of 0.125 mg of an international standard preparation. It is generally asayed by injecting the hormone subcutaneously into fasting rabbits and then determining the rate and extent of the lowering of the blood sugar level. Pure insulin possesses an activity equivalent to 24 IU per milligram. Insulin loses its physiological activity when treated with alkali to pH 10 or with proteolytic enzymes like chymotrypsin.

Insulin is a polypeptide with a molecular weight of approximately 6000. It is generally prepared from beef pancreas, and this bovine insulin has been found to be composed of 254 atoms of carbon, 377 atoms of hydrogen, 65 atoms of nitrogen, 75 atoms of oxygen, and 6 atoms of sulfur. The insulin molecule contains 48 amino acids which make up two peptide chains (A chain and B chain) joined by sulfur atoms or —S—S— bridges. A complete description of the structure of bovine insulin was achieved by F. Sanger and coworkers in 1954. The structural formula is depicted above where Gly is glycine, Ileu is isoleucine, Val is valine, Glu is glutamic acid, Cy is cystine, Ala is alanine, Ser is serine, Leu is leucine, Tyr is tyrosine, Asp is aspartic acid, Try is tryptophan, Phe is phenylalanine, His is histidine, Thr is threonine, Pro is proline, Lys is lysine, Arg is arginine.

Insulin preparations from other species such as pig, sheep, horse, and whale have also been examined by Sanger and coworkers and have been found to be similar in structure to the bovine insulin except for the amino acid sequence comprising positions 8, 9, and 10 in the A chain of the molecule. The biological potency of insulin has not been found to differ from species to species nor has it been possible to differentiate the various preparations immunologically. [CHL]

## Insulin shock

A treatment for schizophrenic psychosis introduced by Manfred Sakel in 1933. It is also known as coma treatment. The patient receives a course of 20–50 treatments consisting of gradually increasing doses of insulin until coma is reached. Patients are

awakened by oral or intravenous applications of sugar or glucose. See SCHIZOPHRENIA

The treatment is an empirical method not based on a satisfactory theory. Reports about results of this treatment have always been contradictory, ranging from enthusiastic reports of 80% recoveries to very conservative estimates in which the number of recovered patients hardly exceeds the rate of spontaneous remission. Factors such as the general hospital atmosphere, the attitude of the therapist, and varying criteria of recovery explain such wide discrepancies.

Administration of insulin coma treatment is a complex time- and personnel-consuming procedure. For this reason and because fatalities have occurred and a number of patients have received lasting neurological damage, insulin shock treatment has been on the decline. It has been replaced largely by electric convulsive treatment and by drug therapy with tranquilizers and psychic energizers (see PSYCHIC ENERGIZER, TRANQUILIZER).

In subcoma treatment the doses are kept small enough so that not coma but its prodroma such as sweating, drowsiness, and hunger are produced. During this subcoma state the patient may be more amenable to psychotherapy. See PSYCHOTHERAPY.

[FCR]  
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## Intaglio (gemology)

The name given to the type of carved gem stone in which the figure is engraved into the surface of the stone rather than left in relief by cutting away the background, as in a cameo. Intaglios are almost as old as recorded history for this type of carving was popular in ancient Egypt in the form of cylinders. The cylinder as well as the more familiar form of intaglio was popular to impress seals on sealing wax. Intaglios have been carved in a variety of gem materials including emerald, crystalline quartz, hematite, and the various forms of chalcedony. See CAMEO. [RTL]

## Integral transform

An integral relation between two classes of functions. For example, a relation such as

$$f(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(xy)\phi(y) dy \quad (1)$$

10



Replacing  $s$  by  $D$  and using Eq (5) one has

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{E(D)} \phi(x) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-tD} \phi(x) G(t) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(x-t) G(t) dt \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(x-y) \phi(y) dy \\ &= f(x) \quad x-t=y\end{aligned}\quad (7)$$

If  $E(D)$  were a number one could solve Eq (7) to obtain

$$\phi(x) = E(D)f(x) \quad (8)$$

Finally reverting to the original meaning of  $D$  as a derivative one has in Eq (8) an inversion of Eq (1) by means of a differential operator  $E(D)$

This argument is meant to be exploratory only but the result is accurate for a large class of kernels  $G$  and their corresponding inversion functions  $E$ . In summary the inversion function is the reciprocal of the bilateral Laplace transform of the kernel. It has been shown that the result is correct if for example  $E(s)$  is the infinite product

$$E(s) = e^c - \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{s}{a_k}\right) e^{s/a_k} \quad (9)$$

where  $c \geq 0$  and the series of real constants

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k^{-1}$$

converges

For example if  $K(x) = e^{-x}$  then Eq (4) is the Laplace transform. Expressed as a convolution transform as in Eq (3) it becomes

$$e F(e) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(x-y) \Phi(e^{-y}) dy$$

where  $G$  is given in the above list as entry K. The bilateral Laplace transform of this kernel is the familiar gamma function

$$\Gamma(1-s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t} G(t) dt = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{-s} dt$$

whose reciprocal has a well known expansion in the form of Eq (9)

$$E(s) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(1-s)} = e^{-\gamma s} \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{s}{k}\right) e^{s/k}$$

Here  $\gamma$  is Euler's constant. In the present example Eq (8) becomes

$$e^{-\gamma D} \prod_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{D}{k}\right) e^{D/k} F(e^x) = \Phi(e^{-x})$$

or if  $e = e^x$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} F^{(k)}\left(\frac{k}{e}\right) \left(\frac{k}{e}\right)^{k+1} = \Phi(e)$$

This familiar inversion formula also serves to illustrate the operator  $O_t$  appearing in Eq (2). In the present case the operator is a differential one

and the parameter  $t$  is an integer  $k$  which tends to  $\infty$ . See CONFORMAL MAPPING INTEGRATION [D V W]

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## Integration

An operation of the infinitesimal calculus which has two aspects. The roots of one go back to antiquity for Archimedes and other Greek mathematicians used the method of exhaustion to compute areas and volumes. A simple example of this is the approximation to the area of a circle obtained by inscribing a regular polygon of known area and then repeatedly doubling the number of sides. The areas of the successive polygons are computable with the help of elementary geometry. The limit of the sequence of these areas gives the area of the circle. The area of each polygon can be regarded as made up of the sum of the areas of triangles with vertices at the center of the circle and so the process described is a constructive definition of an integral which is the limit of a sum. Modern definitions of integrals as limits of sums are discussed in this article.

The other aspect of integration is the process of finding antiderivatives that is for a given function  $f(x)$  to find another function  $g(x)$  whose derivative is  $f(x)$ . This aspect is related to the first by the fundamental theorem of integral calculus so both processes are called integration.

Sir Isaac Newton emphasized the antiderivative aspect of integration and his work shows how much can be done in the applications of integral calculus without introducing limits of sums. However limits of sums lead to very fruitful theoretical developments in the theory of integration as in the notion of multiple integrals for example and hence lead to a wider variety of applications. Leibnitz the seventeenth century mathematician inspired the development in this direction but many years elapsed before the theory was given a firm logical foundation. In the early nineteenth century A L Cauchy gave a clear cut definition of the definite integral for continuous functions and a proof of its existence. Later G F B Riemann discussed the integral for discontinuous functions and gave a necessary and sufficient condition for its existence. Thus the most generally used definition of the integral as the limit of a sum has come to be called the Riemann integral.

**Riemann integral** The precise definition of the Riemann integral for a real function  $f$  of one real variable  $x$  on a finite interval  $a \leq x \leq b$  may be formulated as follows. Let  $P$  be a partition of the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals by points  $t_i$  where  $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n = b$  and consider a sum  $S$  of the form

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}) \quad (1)$$

where  $t_1 \leq x_i \leq t_i$ . The sum  $S$  depends not only on

the partition  $P$  but on the choice of the intermediate points  $x_i$  it may happen that the sum  $S$  approaches a definite limit which is the maximum of the numbers  $(x_i - x_{i-1})$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and in this case it is called the Riemann integral (or the definite integral) of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$  and is denoted by the Leibnizian symbol

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

A function  $f$  is said to be integrable on  $[a, b]$  when  $f$  is a continuous function with positive value on the interval  $[a, b]$  the integral has a simple geometric interpretation as the area bounded by the graph of the function  $y = f(x)$  and the line  $x = b$  and the graph of  $y = f(x)$  ( $f(x) \geq 0$ ) is convenient to define

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$$

For functions  $f$  and  $g$  which are integrable on  $[a, b]$  the following properties hold:

(i) For every triple of points  $a, b, c$  and in  $[a, b]$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx$$

(ii)  $f(x) + g(x)$  is integrable and

$$\int_a^b (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

(iii)  $f(x)g(x)$  is integrable and in particular  $f(x)$  is integrable for every real number  $c$  and

$$\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

(iv) If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$  then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

(v)  $|f(x)|$  is integrable and

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

It can be proved that if  $f$  is a continuous function on  $[a, b]$  then the two conditions following are satisfied:  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$  and the set of points where  $f$  is discontinuous has no limit points (i.e., it is finite).

Antiderivatives The development of the fundamental theorem of integral calculus is a natural consequence of the

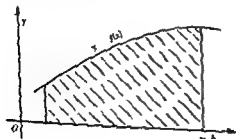


Fig. 1

the interval  $[a, b]$  on which  $f$  is integrable then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

is a function which may be denoted by  $F(u)$ . If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then  $f$  is integrable and it is also true that  $F(u)$  has a derivative  $F'(u) = f(u)$ . Now let  $h$  be any antiderivative of  $f$  that is  $h(u) = f(u)$  on  $[a, b]$ . Then  $F(u) - h(u) = 0$  so  $F(u) - h(u) = \text{constant} = -h(a)$ . By the theorem of the mean for derivatives and the fact that  $F(a) = 0$

$$F(b) = h(b) - h(a)$$

This is the fundamental theorem of integral calculus and it shows that definite integrals may be calculated by the process of finding antiderivatives. For the reason antiderivatives are also frequently called indefinite integrals and denoted by  $\int f(x) dx$  and the methods of finding indefinite integrals for frequently occurring functions occupy a large part of elementary calculus. The principal methods are outlined in the next section. The standard notation for the definite integral of  $f(x)$  is

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Elementary methods of integration Obviously each formula for differentiation yields a formula for definite integration

Method of substitution From the definition of integral addition of terms can be obtained by the method of substitution which is based on the chain rule for differentiation. The principal method is exemplified in the following

$$x^m dx = \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1}$$

obtains

$$\int (a^2 + x^2)^m dx = \frac{(a^2 + x^2)^{m+1}}{2(m+1)}$$

by the substitution  $v = a^2 + x^2$  and

$$\int x^m dx = \frac{x^{m+1}}{m+1}$$

by the substitution  $v = x$

If the partial fractions in  $f(x)$  is a quotient of two polynomials  $x$   $f(x)$  may be represented as a sum of polynomials and terms of the form

$$\frac{1}{(ax+b)^m} \quad a \neq 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{A+B}{(x^2+d+e)^m} \quad c \neq 0 \quad d^2 - 4ce < 0 \quad (3)$$

where  $m$  is a positive integer and the coefficients are real. This is called the method of partial fractions. The fact that the denominator  $f(x)$  can be written in the form (2) has been known since the time of the Greeks. The form (3) with  $m = 1$  can also be

integrated by elementary formulas. When  $m > 1$  a term of the form (3) can be written as a sum of terms of the form

$$\frac{\alpha}{(ax^2 + dx + e)^{m-1}} \\ \text{and} \quad \frac{(\beta x + \alpha)(2cx + d)}{(cx^2 + dx + e)^m} \quad (4)$$

By the process of integration by parts the indefinite integral of a term of the form (4) can be expressed in terms of the integral of a term such as (3) with  $m$  replaced by  $m - 1$ . Reduction formulas of this type are given in standard tables of integrals.

A rational function of  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$  may be integrated by the method just described after the substitution  $u = \tan(x/2)$  has been applied. This substitution reduces the problem to the integration of a rational function of  $u$ . Various functions involving radicals can be integrated by means of trigonometric substitutions or by other substitution which reduce the problem to the integration of a rational function. For example, by setting  $u = a + bx$  one finds

$$\int x^m (a + bx)^p dx = \int \left( \frac{u-a}{b} \right)^m u^p \frac{du}{b}$$

and when  $m$  is a nonnegative integer the right side may be multiplied out and integrated by the power formula, even though  $p$  is a fraction.

**Integration by parts.** This is a very powerful and important method. It follows from the formula for differentiating a product, namely

$$d(fg) = f dg + g df$$

After the terms are rearranged and integrated

$$\text{or} \quad \int f dg = fg - \int g df$$

where the arbitrary constant, as usual, has been omitted. As an example, consider

$$I = \int \frac{2x^2 dx}{(x^2 + 1)^m}$$

which is a special case of (4). Let  $f = x$ ,  $g' = 2x/(x^2 + 1)^m$ . Then  $f' = 1$

$$g = \frac{1}{(1-m)(x^2 + 1)^{m-1}}$$

$$\text{so } I = \frac{x}{(1-m)(x^2 + 1)^{m-1}} - \frac{1}{(1-m)} \int \frac{dx}{(x^2 + 1)^{m-1}}$$

The indefinite integrals of many of the commonly occurring functions are given in table of integrals in handbooks and textbook.

The elementary functions are those expressible by means of a finite number of algebraic operations and trigonometric and exponential functions and their inverses. The integrals of many elementary functions are known to be not elementary, so they define new functions. A number of these are suf-

ficiently important so that their values have been tabulated. Examples are

$$F(k, x) = \int_0^x \frac{dt}{\sqrt{(1-t^2)(1-k^2 t^2)}} \quad (k^2 \neq 1)$$

$$\text{Si } x = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t \, dt}{t}$$

$F(k, x)$  is called an elliptic integral of the first kind. The inverse of  $u = F(k, x)$  is an elliptic function called the sine amplitude of  $u$  and denoted by  $\text{sn } u$  (see ELLIPTIC FUNCTION AND INTEGRAL). Some of the nonelementary functions have been included in tables of integrals.

**Improper integrals.** This term is used to refer to an extension of the notion of definite integral to cases where the integrand is unbounded or the domain of integration is unbounded. Consider first the case when  $f(x)$  is integrable (in the sense defined above) and hence bounded on every interval  $[a + \epsilon, b]$  for  $\epsilon > 0$  but is unbounded on  $[a, b]$ . Then by definition

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{a+\epsilon}^b f(x) dx$$

provided the limit on the right exists. For example, if  $f(x) = x^{-2/3}$

$$\int_0^1 x^{-2/3} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 x^{-2/3} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} 3[1 - \epsilon^{1/3}] = 3$$

Similarly

$$\int_{-1}^0 x^{-2/3} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-1}^{-\epsilon} x^{-2/3} dx \\ = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} 3[(-\epsilon)^{1/3} + 1] = 3$$

When  $f(x)$  is integrable on every finite subinterval of the real axis, by definition

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_b^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} \int_b^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

provided the limits on the right exist. More general cases are treated by dividing the real axis into pieces, each of which satisfies one of the conditions just specified. For example

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-1/2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} \int_b^{-1} x^{-1/2} dx \\ + \lim_{b \rightarrow 0} \int_1^b x^{-1/2} dx + \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_1^b x^{-1/2} dx \\ + \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_b^{\infty} x^{-1/2} dx \quad (5)$$

Because the second and third of the limits on the right do not exist

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-1/2} dx$$

does not exist. However, it is sometimes useful to as-



integrated by elementary formulas. When  $m > 1$  a term of the form (3) can be written as a sum of terms of the form

$$\frac{\alpha}{(ax^2 + dx + e)^{m-1}}$$

$$\text{and } \frac{(\beta x + \alpha)(2cx + d)}{(cx^2 + dx + e)^m} \quad (4)$$

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After the terms are rearranged and integrated

$$\text{or } \int f dg = fg - \int g df$$

$$\int f g' dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g f' dx$$

where the arbitrary constant as usual has been omitted. As an example consider

$$I = \int \frac{2x^2 dx}{(x+1)^m}$$

which is a special case of (4). Let  $f = x$ ,  $g' = 2x/(x+1)^m$ . Then  $f' = 1$

$$g' = \frac{1}{(1-m)(x+1)^{m-1}}$$

$$\text{so } I = \frac{x}{(1-m)(x+1)^{m-1}} - \frac{1}{(1-m)} \int \frac{dx}{(x+1)^{m-1}}$$

The indefinite integrals of many of the commonly occurring functions are given in tables of integrals in handbooks and textbooks.

The elementary functions are those expressible by means of a finite number of algebraic operations and trigonometric and exponential functions and their inverses. The integrals of many elementary functions are known to be not elementary, so they define new functions. A number of these are suf-

ficiently important so that their values have been tabulated. Examples are

$$F(k, x) = \int_0^x \frac{dx}{\sqrt{(1-x^2)(1-k^2 x^2)}} \quad (k^2 \neq 1)$$

$$\text{Si } x = \int_0^x \frac{\sin x \, dx}{x}$$

$F(k, x)$  is called an elliptic integral of the first kind. The inverse of  $u = F(k, x)$  is an elliptic function called the sine amplitude of  $u$  and denoted by  $\text{sn } u$  (see ELLIPTIC FUNCTION AND INTEGRAL). Some of the nonelementary functions have been included in tables of integrals.

**Improper integrals.** This term is used to refer to an extension of the notion of definite integral to cases where the integrand is unbounded or the domain of integration is unbounded. Consider first the case when  $f(x)$  is integrable (in the sense defined above) and hence bounded on every interval  $[a + \epsilon, b]$  for  $\epsilon > 0$  but is unbounded on  $[a, b]$ . Then by definition

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{a+\epsilon}^b f(x) dx$$

provided the limit on the right exists. For example if  $f(x) = x^{-1/2}$

$$\int_0^1 x^{-1/2} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\epsilon}^1 x^{-1/2} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} 2[1 - \epsilon^{1/2}] = 2$$

Similarly

$$\int_{-1}^0 x^{-2/3} dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{-1}^{-\epsilon} x^{-2/3} dx$$

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} 3[(-\epsilon)^{1/3} + 1] = 3$$

When  $f(x)$  is integrable on every finite subinterval of the real axis by definition

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_b f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow -\infty} \int_b f(x) dx$$

provided the limits on the right exist. More general cases are treated by dividing the real axis into pieces each of which satisfies one of the conditions just specified. For example

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-5/3} dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^{-1} x^{-5/3} dx$$

$$+ \lim_{b \rightarrow -1} \int_{-1}^b x^{-5/3} dx + \lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \int_b^c x^{-5/3} dx$$

$$+ \lim_{d \rightarrow +\infty} \int_c^d x^{-5/3} dx \quad (5)$$

Because the second and third of the limits on the right do not exist

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x^{-5/3} dx$$

does not exist. However it is sometimes useful to as-

$$\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \iint_S \text{curl } \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\sigma \quad (\text{Stokes})$$

$$\iiint_V \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} \, d\sigma = \iiint_V \text{div } \mathbf{F} \, dV \quad (\text{Gauss})$$

In the formula of Stokes  $\mathbf{F}$  is a vector field,  $S$  is a smooth surface having a piecewise smooth boundary curve  $C$  directed so that  $S$  lies to the left of an observer proceeding along  $C$  on the side of  $S$  in which the normal coincides with  $\mathbf{n}$  and  $T$  is the unit tangent vector to  $C$ . In terms of the components of  $\mathbf{F}$  the Stokes formula may be written

$$\int_C F_1 dx + F_2 dy + F_3 dz = \iint_S (F_3 - F_2) dy dz + (F_1 - F_3) dz dx + (F_2 - F_1) dx dy$$

where  $F_2 = \partial F / \partial y$  and so on. When the surface  $S$  lies in the  $xy$  plane this equation reduces to Green's formula

$$\int_C F_1 dx + F_2 dy = \iint_S (F_{2x} - F_{1y}) dx dy$$

The latter relation is valid for regions  $S$  of simple shape defined from its boundary formula may be deduced

In the formula of Gauss (also called the Divergence Theorem)  $V$  is a piecewise smooth bounded volume,  $S$  is a smooth piecewise surface enclosing  $V$  and  $\mathbf{n}$  is the outward normal to  $S$ . In terms of the components of  $\mathbf{F}$  the Gauss formula may be written

$$\iiint_V F_1 dy dz + F_2 dz dx + F_3 dx dy = \iiint_V (F_x + F_y + F_z) dx dy dz$$

### S = CALCULUS OF VECTORS

Functions defined by integrals. Many functions already defined in the calculus of functions which may be defined in terms of integrals of all types. Certain definite integrals may be used to define important elementary functions which are frequently not applicable. For example the gamma function may be defined by

$$\Gamma(x) = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt$$

for  $x > 0$ . The Beta function is defined by

$$B(x, y) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(x)\Gamma(y)} \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt$$

Properties of these functions with the help of the method of residues and the theory of the definite integral. See also the section GAMMA FUNCTION

In general  $f(x)$  is a function of  $x$  such that  $a \leq x \leq b$  and  $f(x)$  is

$$g(x) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

is a well-defined function of  $x$ . When  $f(x)$  is a function defined by the function  $f(x)$  the derivative  $g'(x)$  may be calculated by the formula

$$g'(x) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

This process is called differentiation under the integral sign. It is valid in case  $f$  and  $\partial f / \partial x$  are continuous in  $(x, t)$  for  $c \leq x \leq d$  and  $a \leq t \leq b$  where  $a$  and  $b$  are finite and even in more general cases. However in the following simple example it gives a wrong result

$$f(x, t) = x e^{-t} \\ g(x) = \int_0^\infty f(x, t) dt$$

$$\text{Then } \int_0^\infty \partial f / \partial x dt = \int_0^\infty e^{-t} (3x^2 - 2tx^4) dt$$

which is 0 when  $x = 0$  although  $g(x) = x$  for all  $x$ .

**Approximate and mechanical integration.** The definition of the definite integral itself gives a means of calculating its value approximately. There remain the questions of a suitable selection of the function and the interval  $[a, b]$  into a number of equal parts of length  $h$  (Fig. 2). If the points  $x_i$  are taken as the midpoints of the subintervals one obtains the midpoint formula

$$S \approx h \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \quad (11)$$

For a curve that is concave downward this gives the largest value.

Another formula called the trapezoidal rule is derived by calculating the area below a polygon inscribed in the graph of  $f(x)$  (Fig. 3). This formula is

$$T = \frac{h}{2} [f(a) + f(b) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} f(x_i)] \quad (12)$$

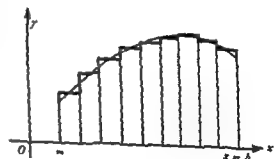


Fig. 2

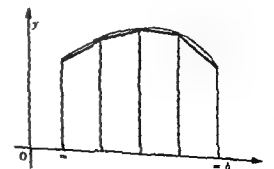


Fig. 3

integrand of  $L(C) =$  the length  $|T(u)|$  of this vector. Thus one may write  $ds = |T(u)| du$  where  $s$  is the arc length measured from some convenient point on  $C$ .

Let  $A(x, y)$  be a bounded continuous function defined on a set containing a plane curve  $C$  having finite length. Then  $A$  determines three functions of  $C$  called line integrals whose symbols and definitions follow.

$$\int_C A dx = \int_a^b A[f(u), g(u)] f'(u) du$$

$$\int_C A dy = \int_a^b A[f(u), g(u)] g'(u) du$$

$$\int_C A ds = \int_a^b A[f(u), g(u)] |T(u)| du$$

If  $-C$  denotes the curve  $C$  traversed in the opposite direction

$$\int_{-C} A dx = - \int_C A dx$$

$$\int_{-C} A dy = - \int_C A dy$$

$$\int_{-C} A ds = \int_C A ds$$

so that a reversal of the orientation of  $C$  changes the signs of the first two but not of the third of these functions.

The extension of the preceding definitions to curves in 3-space is made in an obvious way. An important application of line integrals is to express the work done by a force field on a moving particle. Thus if a force field  $F(x, y, z)$  has components  $F_1(x, y, z)$ ,  $F_2(x, y, z)$  and  $F_3(x, y, z)$  in the directions of the  $x$ ,  $y$  and  $z$  axes, then the work done by the field on a particle moving on a curve  $C$  is

$$W = \int_C F_1 dx + F_2 dy + F_3 dz$$

When  $T$  is the tangent vector of  $C$  the work  $W$  can be expressed in terms of the dot product as

$$W = \int_C F \cdot T du$$

If  $T_1$  denotes the tangent vector of unit length

$$W = \int_C F \cdot T_1 ds$$

To pass from curves to surfaces replace the open interval  $a < u < b$  by a bounded connected open set  $D$  in a  $u, v$  plane which may be called the parameter plane. The domain  $D$  can be restricted to be of sufficiently simple shape so that every function which is continuous and bounded in  $D$  is integrable over  $D$  as a multiple integral. For example  $D$  may be the interior of a circle or of a rectangle. Then a surface  $S$  in 3-space is defined by a triple

$$x = f(u, v)$$

$$y = g(u, v)$$

$$z = h(u, v)$$

of functions continuous on  $D$ . Such a surface is called smooth in case the functions  $f$ ,  $g$  and  $h$  have

continuous first partial derivatives in  $D$  and the three Jacobians

$$J_1 = \frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} \quad J_2 = \frac{\partial(z, x)}{\partial(u, v)} \quad J_3 = \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)}$$

are never simultaneously zero. A smooth surface has at every point a nonzero normal vector  $J(u, v)$  with components  $J_1, J_2, J_3$  and length  $|J|$ .

The area of a smooth surface  $S$  may be defined by the integral

$$\sigma(S) = \iint_D |J(u, v)| du dv$$

and it is always finite when the vector  $J$  has bounded length.

If  $A(x, y, z)$  is a bounded continuous function defined on a set containing a surface  $S$  with finite area, four surface integrals can be defined as follows.

$$\iint_S A dy dz = \iint_D A[f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)] J_1(u, v) du dv$$

$$\iint_S A dz dx = \iint_D A[f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)] J_2(u, v) du dv$$

$$\iint_S A dx dy = \iint_D A[f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)] J_3(u, v) du dv$$

$$\iint_S A d\sigma = \iint_D A[f(u, v), g(u, v), h(u, v)] |J(u, v)| du dv$$

If  $F(x, y, z)$  is a vector field with components  $F_1, F_2, F_3$  and  $n$  denotes the unit vector normal to  $S$  with components  $J_1/|J|, J_2/|J|, J_3/|J|$  then a combination

$$\iint_S F_1 dy dz + F_2 dz dx + F_3 dx dy \quad (8)$$

of the first three kinds of surface integral may also be written in the form

$$\iint_S F \cdot n d\sigma \quad (9)$$

where  $F \cdot n$  is the dot product. The expression (8) or (9) is referred to as the integral of the vector  $F$  over the side of the surface  $S$  to which the vector  $n$  points. The integral over the opposite side of  $S$  is denoted by

$$\iint_S F_1 dy dz + F_2 dz dx + F_3 dx dy \quad (10)$$

and  $\frac{\partial(y, z)}{\partial(u, v)} = -J_1$  and so on.

and (10) is the negative of (8). The last integral in (7) however is independent of a choice of side of the surface.

The important formulas of Stokes and of Gauss are expressed in terms of line and surface integral and the triple or volume integral analogous to the double integral. They are





It gives too small a value for a curve that is concave downward

The error in the approximation may sometimes be reduced without increasing the number of subintervals by use of the parabolic rule (Simpson's rule). To obtain the formula the subarcs of the graph of  $f(x)$  are replaced by arcs of parabolas rather than by line segments. Since three points determine a parabola (with vertical axis) the interval  $[a, b]$  is divided into an even number  $n$  of subintervals. The area under the parabola passing through the points on the graph of  $f(x)$  having abscissas

$$a + (2i - 2)h \quad a + (2i - 1)h \quad a + 2ih$$

18

$$\frac{h}{3} \{ f[a + (2i - 2)h] + 4f[a + (2i - 1)h] + f[a + 2ih] \}$$

so the parabolic rule gives the approximation

$$P = \frac{h}{3} \left\{ f(a) + f(b) + 2 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}-1} f(a + 2ih) + 4 \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{n}{2}} f[a + (2i - 1)h] \right\} \quad (13)$$

When a function  $f(x)$  is given only by a table its integral is most simply computed by one of these formulas or a similar formula

When a function  $f(x)$  is given by a graph mechanical means may be used to calculate associated areas. One such means is the polar planimeter which registers on a rotating wheel the area enclosed by a closed curve around which a tracing point is passed. The integrator invented by Abdank Abakanowicz is designed to draw the graph of an indefinite integral of  $f(x)$  when a tracing point is passed over the graph of  $f(x)$ . These simple devices were the forerunners of more complex machines designed to solve differential equations such as the differential analyzer of Vannevar Bush. For large scale computations involving formulas such as (11), (12) or (13) a digital computer may be preferred.

**Other methods of integration.** The method of differentiation under the integral sign is often convenient for the evaluation of definite integrals even when other methods are available. For example let

$$g(x) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-xt} dt = \frac{e - 1}{x}$$

$$\text{Then } g(x) = \int_0^{\infty} te^{-xt} dt = \frac{ae}{x} - \frac{e - 1}{x^2}$$

$$\text{If } g(x) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dt}{t^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{x} \arctan(a/x)$$

$$g(x) = -2x \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dt}{(t^2 + x^2)^2} = -\frac{1}{x^2} \arctan(a/x) - \frac{a}{x(a^2 + x^2)}$$

Another example in which the conditions for validity of the method hold though they are more difficult to verify is given by

$$g(x) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \quad 0 \leq x < \infty$$

$$\text{Then } g'(x) = -\int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} \sin t dt = \frac{-1}{1+x^2}$$

as can be shown by integration by parts twice. Hence  $g(x) = -\arctan x + C$  and  $C = \pi/2$  since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = 0$$

In particular

$$g(0) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt = \pi/2$$

In case an indefinite integral is not elementary but the integrand is representable by an infinite series the method of integrating term by term gives a representation for the integral which may be useful for purposes of approximation. For example

$$S_1(x) = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)^2 (2n)!}$$

Certain definite integrals may be readily evaluated by means of contour integrals that is integrals of analytic functions taken along curves in the complex plane.

**Integral of Lebesgue.** In the study of the space of real functions defined for example on the interval  $a \leq x \leq b$  it is frequently useful to take

$$\int_a^b |f(x) - g(x)| dx \quad (1)$$

as the distance between the functions  $f$  and  $g$ . This distance already has a meaning when  $f$  and  $g$  are Riemann integrable that is bounded and not too discontinuous in the sense specified for the Riemann integral. There is no generally useful extension of the concept of integral to apply to all real functions on  $[a, b]$  but it is desirable to extend it to apply to the functions obtained from the continuous ones by certain limiting processes. In particular it is desirable to have a correspondence to each sequence  $\{f_n\}$  of functions satisfying the Cauchy condition for convergence in terms of the distance (14) namely

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)| dx = 0 \quad (1)$$

a function  $f$  which is integrable (in the extended sense) and for which

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f_n(x) - g(x)| dx = 0$$

An extended definition of integral having this property was given by H. L. Lebesgue in his thesis. This made obsolete many of the complicated extensions of the Riemann integral which had been previously proposed. Following Lebesgue's example mathematicians have proposed other ways of defining the integral which are equivalent to that of Lebesgue.

For each real definition which can be stated quite simply at least for the case of a bounded function  $g(x)$ . A first definition is a point set  $S$  in the

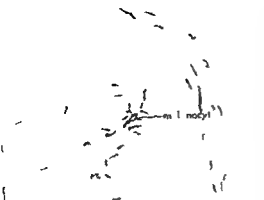


Fig 2 Adipose melanocyte of the dermis  
The diagram shows the structure of the skin, including the epidermis and dermis. It highlights the role of melanocytes in the epidermis and their connection to the dermis via dendritic processes. The diagram also shows the presence of collagen and elastin fibers in the dermis.

ject elaborate the pigment in response to  
local conditions and thus contribute to the color  
of the skin and its structure.

**Melanocyte** A melanocyte is a cell in the epidermis that produces and distributes melanin. It is a specialized cell that can be found in the basal layer of the epidermis. Melanocytes are responsible for the production of melanin, which is a pigment that gives the skin its color. They also play a role in protecting the skin from UV radiation by absorbing and scattering the light. Melanocytes are found in all mammals, but their distribution and activity vary between species and individuals. In humans, melanocytes are found in the basal layer of the epidermis, and their activity is regulated by the hormone melatonin. Melanocytes are also found in the hair follicles, where they produce the pigment that gives hair its color.

In the human skin, melanocytes are found in the basal layer of the epidermis, where they produce and distribute melanin. They are also found in the hair follicles, where they produce the pigment that gives hair its color. Melanocytes are responsible for the production of melanin, which is a pigment that gives the skin its color. They also play a role in protecting the skin from UV radiation by absorbing and scattering the light. Melanocytes are found in all mammals, but their distribution and activity vary between species and individuals. In humans, melanocytes are found in the basal layer of the epidermis, and their activity is regulated by the hormone melatonin. Melanocytes are also found in the hair follicles, where they produce the pigment that gives hair its color.

**Development of the Integument** The integumentary system develops from the ectoderm, the outermost layer of the embryo. It is the first layer to form, and it gives rise to the skin, hair, and nails. The development of the integument is a complex process that involves the differentiation of the ectoderm into various cell types, including keratinocytes, melanocytes, and hair cells. The process is regulated by a variety of factors, including genetic and environmental influences. The development of the integument is a critical part of the embryonic development process, and it is essential for the survival and health of the organism.

the integumentary system is a complex system that is responsible for the protection of the body from the environment. It consists of the skin, hair, and nails. The skin is the largest organ of the body, and it covers the entire surface of the body. It is composed of two main layers: the epidermis and the dermis. The epidermis is the outermost layer, and it is composed of several layers of cells. The dermis is the layer beneath the epidermis, and it is composed of connective tissue, blood vessels, and nerves. The integumentary system plays a crucial role in the body's defense against pathogens and environmental damage. It also plays a role in the regulation of body temperature and the production of vitamin D.

The dermis is the layer beneath the epidermis, and it is composed of connective tissue, blood vessels, and nerves. It is responsible for the production of collagen and elastin, which are proteins that give the skin its strength and elasticity. The dermis also contains the hair follicles and the sweat glands. The integumentary system is a complex system that is essential for the survival and health of the organism. It plays a crucial role in the body's defense against pathogens and environmental damage. It also plays a role in the regulation of body temperature and the production of vitamin D.

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**Epidermal derivatives** These are structures that develop from the epidermis. They include the hair, nails, and sweat glands. The hair is a specialized structure that is composed of keratinized cells. It is found in all mammals, and it plays a role in the regulation of body temperature and the protection of the skin. The nails are also composed of keratinized cells, and they are found on the fingers and toes. They play a role in the protection of the skin and the manipulation of objects. The sweat glands are specialized structures that are responsible for the production and secretion of sweat. They are found in all mammals, and they play a role in the regulation of body temperature.

**Dermal derivatives** These are structures that develop from the dermis. They include the hair follicles, sweat glands, and sebaceous glands. The hair follicles are specialized structures that are responsible for the production and growth of hair. They are found in all mammals, and they play a role in the regulation of body temperature and the protection of the skin. The sweat glands are specialized structures that are responsible for the production and secretion of sweat. They are found in all mammals, and they play a role in the regulation of body temperature. The sebaceous glands are specialized structures that are responsible for the production and secretion of sebum. They are found in all mammals, and they play a role in the protection of the skin and the regulation of body temperature.

Hobson *Theory of Functions of a Real Variable* 2d ed 1927 B O Peirce *A Short Table of Integrals* 3d ed 1929

## Integument

The skin or outer covering of the body together with its various derivatives such as hair glands scales. It consists basically of two tissues an outer epidermis and an inner corium or dermis. The lower layer of the dermis in man and many other animals rests on a fatty subcutaneous tissue or hypodermis which smooths out the contours of the underlying bone and muscle. The skin with its derivatives and associated hypodermis comprises an organ system which protects the underlying tissues and according to the mode of life of the animal may serve important functions in respiration excretion water balance protective coloration sexual recognition and others.

**Epidermis** This is the outer portion of the skin. It is a many layered epithelium comprising characteristically two distinctive strata of cells the stratum germinativum or basal layer which rests on the dermis and the outer stratum corneum. In man the thick skin of the palms and soles shows two intermediate layers the stratum granulosum and the stratum lucidum interposed between the stratum germinativum and stratum corneum (Fig 1).

**Stratum germinativum** The innermost stratum of the epidermis is the germinativum or Malpighian layer. It rests on the dermis and proliferates cells which are added continuously to the outer layers. Its basal cells are cylindrical and oriented perpendicularly to the surface of the skin. In most verte-

brates daughter cells of this layer show a gradual transition to the more flattened cells of the stratum corneum. In mammals however there is a striking contrast between the live cells of the stratum germinativum and the flattened cornified cells of the outermost layers of the skin.

**Stratum corneum** This is the outer layer of flattened keratinized cells of the epidermis is particularly well developed in the higher vertebrates. It is contributed by cells proliferated from the stratum germinativum. As the cells move upward they become flattened and their contents transform almost entirely into keratin. The outer layers of keratinized epithelium are progressively cast off as new cells arrive from below.

**Dermis** The deeper layer of the skin is the dermis corium or cutis a dense connective tissue richly supplied with blood vessels nerves and associated sensory organs (see SENSE ORGAN). In it are embedded the glands of the skin and other epidermal derivatives such as hairs and feathers. The upper surface of the dermis the soft papillary layer is in contact with the stratum germinativum of the epidermis and is thrown into folds and projections interdigitating with local thickenings of the stratum germinativum. The papillary layer grades into the denser reticular layer below. The latter contains fewer cells and comprises a dense feltwork of collagenous fibers variously oriented but chiefly parallel to the skin surface. Elastic fibers are less numerous forming a looser network which is most prominent about the hair follicles and sweat and sebaceous glands. Collagenous and elastic fibers of the dermis are continuous with the fatty subcutaneous tissue below. See FEATHER (BIRD) HAIR.

**Pigment cells** The color of the skin and its derivatives is due largely to the presence of distinctive pigment forming cells or chromatophores in the epidermis and dermis. These cells are variously designated according to the color and chemical characteristics of their pigments. Chief among them are melanocytes containing granules of melanoprotein or melanin an oxidation product of the amino acid tyrosine which in different cells may range in color from black through brown red and yellow. Guanophores or iridiocytes filled with iridescent crystals of guanin and a variety of lipophores containing yellow red and orange types of pigment. Melanin pigments are chiefly responsible for the color of human skin although carotene and hemoglobin contribute notably. See CHROMATOPHORE.

**Melanoblast** A prospective melanin producing cell; the melanoblast. Originating from the neural crest the melanoblasts migrate to all regions of the body. During their dispersal they are indistinguishable from the cells with which they are associated but their presence may be detected by means of proper transplantation or tissue culture experiments. In most vertebrates they are found in the dermis and at the dermo-epidermal

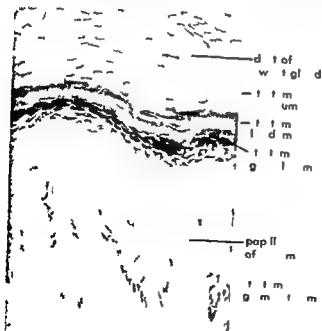


Fig 1 The characteristic structure of the human finger as seen in cross section at high magnification (F. M. J. F. N. and W. F. W. D. T. T. book of Histology McGraw-Hill 1949)

Set glands unlike r f flicle w f f m a ew  
: arl

Th vel t on dee a lers: an excepti n to  
th rle that the full thickne f mammal an kn  
can t be reg nerated Thi layer of typical hair  
bea g kin pe l f f bel e th antlers are shed  
b t r m rates with the new set of antl rs

[R F B U]

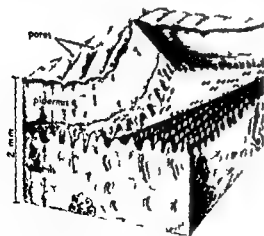
B b l o g a p h y L B A r e y D e l o p m t a l A n t  
o m y S t h e d 194 W D W E l y and H B  
C l a ( e d ) C h e m i c a l B a s i s o f D e t e l p m e t  
1958 W M M a g n a T h e S t u t e a d F u c t i o n o f  
S k 1956 S R o t h m a P h y s i o l o g y a n d B i o c h e m  
i t r y o f t h S k i n 19 4

## Integumentary patterns

These c m p r l l t h f e a t u r e s f i t h k i n n d s  
a p p e a r t h a t a r a n g e d i d e a g b o t h i  
m n a d t h r a n m l E x a m p l e s r e a l e h  
a d f t h r l o a t i n a n d e p d e r m a l r i d g s  
f i t h f i g e p l m s n d f e e t I n t o m m n u s a g  
t h t r m p p l e s t t h e o n f i g u r a t i o n f e t d r m l  
r d g e c l l t e l y m e d d r m a t o g l y p h c D e r m a  
t g l y p h a c h a r a t u o f p m s

The up l l r d g e s a e a c o a t e d w i t h a s p e  
f i n n r g a n i z a t i o n S k c m j e d o f  
t l l f l e e p d e m o n t h o u t d a n d t h e  
d e r m u d r i n g i t ( F i g 1 ) T h e t w o l y r r e  
m u d l y p e g f d r m a d u b l e r w o f p  
r e s p o d g t a h i d g t h e e p g e o r d  
n g l y f m a p t i n g l l t h t f i t h d g e

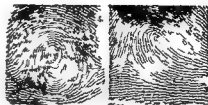
R i d g e p a t t e r n s T h e p a t t e n g o f d g n  
l o d n g t h t f t h p e r d e r m a l d e r m a l r i n g i s  
d i m e d d n g t h r d n d f r t h f t a l  
m t h A l l h a t e i t f n g l d g n d f  
t h r a l g m t t h t r m e d f i n t i l v  
R i d g a l g m t r e f l t d t n s f t r e s  
g t h t h l l d d f o o t a t t h e i t a l p o d  
f d g d f f e n t i t m A m p r t n t e l m n t  
t h p o d s f l o c a l i z e d p t t n s f r e x a m p l e



F i g 1 S t r u c t u r e o f r i d g e d l i ( F m H C m m  
d C M d l F g P t P l m d S o l M G w  
H B 1943)

on the terminal segment of each digit is the de cl  
opment in the fetus of a eries of ele ations the  
lar pad

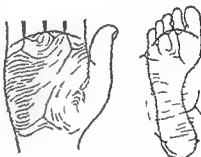
Volar pads The pad are hom logs of th  
pr m n e t pad on the paws of me mammals but  
n primate th y attain little elevation and oon  
tend to subside (F g 2) Th p ls are d i p o e d i n a  
c o n t i t e t p o g r a p h i c p l a n L o c a l i z e d p a t t e r n s  
h a e t h e s a m e p l a c m e n t b e c a u e g r o w t h o f t h e



( a )

( b )

F g 2 F g e p t ( a ) W h o l ( b ) l l p ( F m  
H C m m d C M d l F g P t P l m d  
S o l M G w H B 1943)



F g 3 D m i g l y p h c o f p l m d s o l ( F m  
H C m m d C M d l F g P t P l m d  
S o l M G w H B 1943)

pad the d e r m s f t h s p e c i f i c a l p a t t e r n  
W h e n a p a d h a u b d d b e f o r e r i d g e s a r f m e d  
i t s a r a d o e n t p e a t a l o c a l i z e d p a t t e r n a n d  
t h e r i d g e f l o w e s t i l l y s t r a i g h t p a r a l l e  
l v r a t i o n s c o t u s o f t h e p a d s a e a c  
c m p n e d b y w i d e r a t i o n i n t h d e s g n s  
f r m d y t h d g e l y i n g t

P a t t e r n v a r i a b i l i t y r i a l l y o f p a t t e r n g i s a  
m j r f e a t u r e o f d r m a t g l p h y s a n d t h e b a s f o r  
v a r a p p l c a t i o n s ( F g 3 ) I n p e r s o n a l i d n t i f i  
c a t p r i s c u t o m a l y o f f i g e r a r e c l s f e d  
f r f i l i n g i n c o r d a w i t h a t a b l e s f p a t t e r n  
t y p a n d c o t o f r d g e s S y t e m a t c f i l i n g m a k s  
t p a b l e t l e t e r a d i l y n d c o r p a e t h e s t s f  
p r i n t r r e s p o n d g i n l f i n t i o n t o a s e t l  
w h h a n d t i c a t i o n y a g h t I n a n t h o p o l o g c a l  
a n d m d l n e t g t n s g u p s f n d i d a l  
r e c m p a r e d t o t a l l y i n f n t o t h e o c r  
r e c e f t h e s a r i a b l e D e d u c t i o n m a y b e d r a w n  
m d a c e w i t h l k e r l k n e s s i n t h e d  
r e c t s o f v a r i t n A f e w e x a m p l e s a r e c i t d  
T d f i n h e r i t a c e h e b e n d e m n s t r a t e d n  
f m l y g r u p a n d m p r o n f t h e t w o t y p e s

## ULTRASTRUCTURE OF SKIN

This aspect concerns details of submicroscopic structures of cellular morphology too small to be seen with a light microscope. The electron microscope affording magnifications of 2000-200 000 and ancillary techniques must be employed in this study.

Epidermal cell cytoplasm contains in addition to the usual components narrow (about 50 Å or 0.005 μ wide) filaments which appear to transform in the stratum granulosum into the solid keratin of the cornified layers. Grouping of these filaments or tonofilaments into tonofibrils increases with distance from the basement membrane. They are most prominent in thick skins and least in thin skins. Tonofilaments made up of prekeratin protein remain intracytoplasmic even within the intracellular bridges or Bizzer nodes. They terminate at electron dense areas subjacent to each cell membrane. The two cell membranes within a bridge are separated by a 300 Å wide band of amorphous material which changes in the stratum lucidum or lower stratum corneum and is removed as cells desquamate (Fig. 3).

The basement membrane is a 350 Å thick sheet of amorphous material and associated filaments which completely separates the epidermis from the dermis or corium. Collagen fibrils each displaying a characteristic macromolecular striation are found

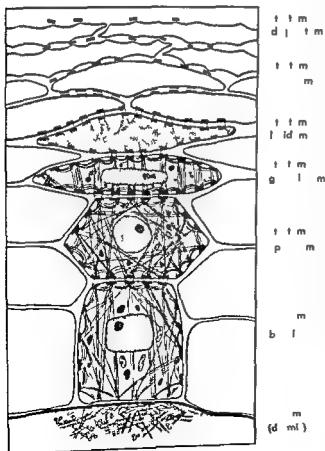


Fig. 3 Schematic drawing of the morphological differentiation of the epidermis.

individually each 300-800 Å wide or grouped as fibers in all intercellular spaces of the corium. See ANGSTROM HISTOLOGY SKIN see also MICROSCOPE ELECTRON [C.C.S.]

## REGENERATION

The skin of man and other mammals has a highly developed capacity for regeneration. The epidermis, or outer layer, is continuously replacing itself through proliferation of its lowermost cells as the cornified epidermal cells from its surface are lost through normal wear. The epidermis of the sole of a rat's foot for instance undergoes complete replacement in about 3 weeks.

**Cutaneous wounds.** Healing of cutaneous wounds is a regenerative process. If a small patch of epidermis is scraped off and a few scattered fragments of its lowermost layer are left, epidermis will regenerate rapidly by proliferation of the remaining cells. If no epidermal fragments are left, a new layer of epidermis will appear over the denuded area as a result of an inward movement of epidermis from the wound margins. Multiplication of the cells present in the new epidermis restores its thickness to normal.

Fingerprints are a system of ridgelike elevations of the epidermis are regenerated accurately even after complete destruction of the epidermis, provided that the underlying tissue is undamaged. See FINGERPRINT.

**Deep wounds.** The capacity of the dermis, the tough fibrous inner layer of the skin, to regenerate is unfortunately incomplete. Lost superficial levels of the dermis are replaced by the activity of connective tissue cells which lay down new collagen fibers. If the full thickness of the dermis is excised or destroyed, as in third degree burns, it is not regenerated. All that the body can do is to produce a thick layer of fibrous tissue which eventually becomes covered by epidermis. The final product is scar tissue and is quite unlike normal skin. Scar tissue lacks resilience and mobility; the orientation of its fibers is abnormal, and the epidermis never becomes firmly united to it. In the early stages of maturation, scar tissue undergoes contracture so that the margins of small wounds are brought together and only small scars result. Skin grafting is the only satisfactory treatment for extensive loss or destruction of the full thickness of the skin in man. Skin is an easy tissue to graft because of its proliferative capacity; however, the graft takes permanently only if the skin donor is the patient himself or his identical twin.

**Hair.** Regeneration of hair depends on regeneration of hair follicles. Hair follicles are specialized projections of the epidermis into the dermis. They will regenerate completely provided that a small basal fragment remains undamaged. This fragment includes the papilla, a dermal structure lying at the bottom of the follicle. Only in a few animals, such as the rabbit, under special experimental conditions does scar tissue encourage the growth of new hairs.

tests also reflect the whole with the person places  
 intellectual activity and his general need to  
 achieve or excel (see MOTIVATION)  
 Despite the complexity of the phenomenon the  
 concept of general intelligence with its standard  
 methodological framework remains to be  
 highly useful as a practical problem as the  
 diagnosis of mental deficiency through prediction of  
 academic potential and assessment of the effect  
 of personnel strategy in the military service  
 See PSYCHOLOGY PHYSIOLOGICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL  
 [UR]  
 Bibliography J B Miller I tellge the  
 University of St. Louis 1957 J Page Th Psychology of  
 Intelligence 1950

# Intercommunicating system

A telephone system including direct omniscient  
 between telephone numbers in the same premises of  
 the extended to intercommunicating systems of  
 two general types (1) the all general telephone  
 system associated with the wide telephone  
 network (2) local systems associated with  
 the national telephone network Both types  
 range from simple to complex in scope  
 Telephone utilizing systems International  
 system utilizing trunks to a central office with  
 the national telephone network fully employ  
 telephone equipped with a number of keys that  
 a particular telephone can be connected to the  
 any of several local offices (or PBX  
 ) or a central office Systems employ  
 a key-equipped telephone together with  
 any other related apparatus and  
 network called key telephone system or  
 sometimes key equipment They furnish  
 a wide variety of embodiment Examples the  
 key may form a group of telephone  
 sets may be partially connected Signal lamps  
 which flash indicate incoming calls, light  
 signals indicate work which is  
 being held in my means a uniform In some key



Fig 2 Thirty-two key telephone (B I T I ph L b)

telephone (Figs 1 and 2) the key buttons are  
 marked for a particular plant and are illuminated  
 from both the left and right as visual signals  
 See TELEPHONE TELEPHONE PRIVATE BRANCH  
 CHANGE (PBX)

The larger key equipment often takes the form  
 of key rack which are wood mounted boxes  
 containing a desk top mounted (see Fig 2) Some  
 times the keys lamp and designation are  
 arranged in a dula has so that additional  
 numbers added later for direct other key equipment  
 and group of horizontal installation and  
 signaling

Optional features Key equipments often provide  
 for wide variety of optional features The  
 more important features are discussed here

Hold Over key When a person is momentarily  
 placed on hold bridge (usually a rest) or a  
 line that the user may temporarily transfer his  
 telephone set to another extension or a  
 trunk line PBX extension with a  
 direct connection to the signal call He can then  
 return to the original by repeating the original  
 key

Intercom signal By dialing a number two-  
 digit code by peaking particular key par-  
 ticular telephone line

Call transfer By multiple use of the  
 extension signal key group of telephone can  
 be arranged in a switchboard

Transfer of call By dialing a part of  
 one or two-digit number carrying a group of  
 telephone extension multiple extension and  
 a switchboard

Common When a telephone is served by the  
 same key equipment as a direct dialing by the  
 extension by anything group and the con-  
 nect As soon as the called telephone is  
 it will be rung automatically and the wait  
 caller will be rung and he will answer the  
 may have tried to reach the particular telephone  
 in the system

Add-on If all direct dialing is a central office  
 extension (that is not a direct extension  
 ) and the party who has added other



Fig 1 Sixty-two key telephone (B I T I ph L b)

of twins fraternal (two egg) and identical (one egg) Dermatoglyphics thus are useful in diagnosing the types of twins and in analyzing cases of questioned paternity Among different racial groups the similar or discrepant trends of variation have been used to analyze racial affinities Trends of variation are unlike in right and left hands and the fact that they differ in accordance with functional handedness indicates an inborn predisposition of handedness See EPIDERMAL RIDGES FINGERPRINT HUMAN GENETICS SKIN [H CU]

*Bibliography* H Cummins and C Midlo *Finger Prints Palms and Soles* 1943

## Intelligence

Defined as the ability to learn to carry on abstract thinking or to adapt to the environment

**Intelligence tests** However intelligence is defined the ability is almost universally measured by adaptations of the testing method invented by the French psychologist Alfred Binet in 1904 In this method the subject is given a variety of tasks involving such activities as manipulation of symbols the perception of analogies and complex relations the comprehension of causal connections and the solution of verbal and mathematical problems The technique assumes a common background of experience with the mental operations involved so that differences in performance presumably reflect variations in ability rather than in trained achievement but in actual practice the distinction is difficult to maintain Thus intelligence test scores show substantial relationships with highest grade reached in school and with measures of academic achievement Although undoubtedly contaminated by effects of training and experience the intelligence test nevertheless provides a better index of potential ability than any other method presently known to science

**Intelligence quotient** The results of intelligence tests are ordinarily expressed by comparing the person's score with the average for his age group The measure most commonly employed for this purpose especially with children is the intelligence quotient or IQ This is a ratio multiplied by 100 to avoid decimals of the child's mental age that is the average age at which children achieve the score obtained by the subject and the child's actual or chronological age Intelligence quotients of 60 or below are usually interpreted as indicating mental deficiency while those of 120 or above as reflecting superior mental ability (see MENTAL DEFICIENCY)

Viewed developmentally intellectual capacity appears to grow at a declining rate until about fifteen years of age Thereafter although the person may obviously increase his store of knowledge and thereby his skill in the solution of problems in particular areas there seems to be no further gain in absolute reasoning power or capacity to perceive complex relations

**Components of intelligence** The nature of intelligence has been investigated primarily through

statistical studies of the relationships between scores in various kinds of mental task On the basis of such work some investigators following the lead of the English psychologist C Spearman conclude that intelligence is best described as a single general factor which enters in greater or lesser degree into all mental activities A contrasting view championed by the American psychologist L L Thurstone posits a series of six primary factors labeled number verbal picture word fluency reasoning and rote memory The six factors nevertheless show appreciable relations with one another especially at the younger age levels

Since World War II research on the nature of intelligence has shifted from a statistical analysis of content toward the experimental study of cognitive processes such as innovation concept formation and the perception of causality

**Bases of intelligence** Little is known regarding the physiological and neurological foundations of intelligence Comparative studies of different animal species suggest a gross relationship between ability in problem solving and the size of the cerebral cortex the outer layer of gray matter of the brain but this correlation does not appear to hold within species Injury of cortical tissue in both animals and men produces a loss in mental function Mental impairment may also be brought about through drugs endocrine malfunction low oxygen supply to the brain or even prolonged isolation from external stimuli for example through immersion of the body for several hours in water at body temperature in a soundproof and light proof chamber

Attempts to identify the relative contribution of interaction of genetic and environmental factors to the development of intelligence have been made with both animal and human subjects At the human level the classic studies of H H Newman and his colleagues indicate that identical twins reared apart show differences in IQ almost twice those obtained for identical twins reared together In the 1950s a growing body of research evidence points to the importance of early experience both before and after birth in the development of intelligence The nature of the intervening mechanisms is not yet known but climatic endocrine and nutritional factors appear to be most relevant in the prenatal period whereas influences associated with prematurity and stimulus deprivation seem most powerful at birth and immediately after See BEHAVIOR AND HEREDITY LEARNING THEORIES

At later age levels greater attention is being paid to the role of social and motivational factors It is becoming increasingly clear for example that mental development as measured by intelligence tests varies markedly as a function of the family's cultural background and socioeconomic position No does it appear likely that the so-called culture free tests will be entirely exempt from this effect Rather the evidence suggests that along with mental ability and the effects of intelligence

test also reflect the place which the places  
on a tell tual activity and the general need to  
achieve the el (s = MOTIVATION)

Despite the complexity of the phenomenon the  
concept of general intelligence and the standard-  
ized techniques for its measurement continue to be  
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diagnosis of mental deficiency the prediction of  
academic potential and success and the selection  
of personnel in industry and the military services  
See PSYCHOLOGY PHYSIOLOGICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL

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# Intercommunicating system

A telephone system provides direct communication  
between telephone numbers in the premises of  
a short line into a central switchboard system of  
two general types (1) the utilizing equal telephone  
network connected with the national wide telephone  
network and (2) local system of a connected with  
the national wide telephone network Both types  
are general in principle and complex in practice

Telephone utilizing systems Intercommunicating  
system utilizing in trunk line a switchboard with  
the national wide telephone network usually employs  
telephone equipment with a number of key switches  
a private telephone branch extension PBX ex-  
change of a local office line (PBX ex-  
change) or to a central office system employ-  
ing a key-equipment telephone together with  
any relay lamp and the related equipment in  
and wiring related key telephone system or in  
some forms key equipment to the exchange furnished  
in wide variety of embodiment For example the  
key may form an integral part of the telephone  
terminal or be separately mounted Signaling lamp  
in the handset or in the main line light instead  
of ringing or in the main line and work while the  
exchange may be a main line or a local line

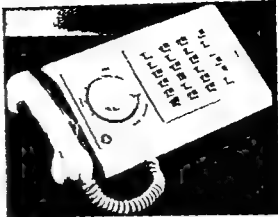


Fig 2 Thirty-two key telephone (BNT telephone lab)

telephone (Fig 1 and 2) the key buttons are  
made of transparent plastic and are illuminated  
from beneath thus allowing as visual signals  
See TELEPHONE TELEPHONE PRIVATE BRANCH EX-  
CHANGE (PBX)

The lighting key equipment often takes the form  
of key turrets which are wood or metal boxes ar-  
ranged in a row on top of the switchboard (see Fig 2) Some-  
times the key lamps and designations are ar-  
ranged on a modular basis the additional unit  
can be added later if desired Other key equipment  
is designed for horizontal installation in a open  
gasketed top

Optional features Key equipment often pro-  
vide for a wide variety of optional features The  
main temporary features are the red-corded hee

Hold One key when operated momentarily  
places a hold bridge (usually a resistor) across the  
line so that the user may temporarily transfer his  
telephone to another extension or to a central office  
extension or PBX extension without causing  
disconnection of the signal call He can then re-  
turn to the original line by repeating the original  
line key

Intercom signal By dialing a one- or two-  
digit number by pressing a particular key on  
the telephone can be used

Conferencing By simultaneously pressing  
several signaling keys a group of telephones can  
be connected to each other for a conference

Press-to-call By dialing a particular  
one- or two-digit code a prearranged group of  
telephones can be simultaneously and all who  
work in the area

Compo When another telephone served by the  
same key equipment is dialed and found busy the  
caller is not hanging up "amp on" the con-  
tinue As soon as the busy telephone is free  
it will be rung automatically and the waiting  
line will be connected ahead of any other  
member tried to reach the particular telephone  
in the main

Addo If a call is received from a central office  
to a PBX extension (that is, a private extension  
line) the all-party work to add the third



Fig 1 Six-button key telephone (BNT telephone lab)



phones served by the same key equipment to the connection he may do so by operating keys provided for the purpose. If he so desires he can then drop off the connection leaving the other party or parties connected.

**Hands free talking.** A microphone a small loud speaker means for amplification a suitable transmission network to prevent howling a volume control and two control buttons (ON and OFF) permit two way conversation without lifting the regular handset from its cradle (see Fig 3). The handset can however be used in the usual way when desired. This arrangement can be associated with key telephones as well as with ordinary telephones.

**Privacy.** Various arrangements are available whereby certain telephones which normally have access to a particular line can be denied access when privacy is desired during a particular conversation. One such arrangement utilizes one of the switchhook plungers which is so designed that it can be pulled upward above its normal position. The feature is automatically canceled when the handset is replaced on its cradle.

**Executive access.** In some key equipments one or more telephones can be arranged so that an executive for example can obtain access to his subordinate telephones whether or not they are busy.

With such a large number of optional features available the necessary relay equipment to perform the various functions is usually designed on a building block basis for flexibility.

**Particular applications.** Intercommunicating systems have also been developed to meet the need of particular applications such as residences and farms.



Fig 3 Key telephone arranged for hands-free talking.

**Residence intercommunicating systems** may include such features as local signaling and talking hands free talking and door answering. The latter permits residents to converse with anyone who rings the doorbell from any telephone in the house.

**Farm intercommunicating systems** are designed to provide facilities for communicating between residence and barns including the ability to answer or originate calls via the telephone central office. At least one telephone is normally equipped for hands free operation and at least one loud ringing bell or its equivalent is usually provided for out door coverage in addition to the regular bells on each telephone.

**Local systems.** Local intercommunicating systems not associated with the nationwide telephone network vary widely in size complexity and type of operation. In various forms they use most of the other features of telephone utilizing systems although with different technical characteristics.

Many such systems contain high gain amplifiers and permit voice paging by direct operation of loudspeakers at subordinate stations under control of a press to talk lever at the master station. Usually these loudspeakers serve also as a dynamic microphone for speech in the opposite direction. Some systems make use of ordinary lighting circuits for voice transmission by using carrier principle to avoid the need for interstation cabling. [RFD]

## Interface of phases

The boundary between any two phases. Among the three phases gas liquid and solid five types of interface are possible gas liquid gas solid liquid liquid liquid solid and solid solid. The abrupt transitions from one phase to another at these boundaries even though subject to the kinetic effects of molecular motion is statistically a surface only 1 or 2 molecule thick.

A unique property of the surfaces of the phases that adjoin at an interface is the surface energy which is the result of unbalanced molecular field existing at the surface of the two phases. Within the bulk of a given phase the intermolecular forces are uniform because each molecule enjoys a statistically homogeneous field produced by neighboring molecules of the same substance. Molecules in the surface of a phase however are bounded on one side by an entirely different environment with the result that there are intermolecular forces that then tend to pull the surface molecules toward the bulk of the phase. A drop of water as a result tends to assume a spherical shape in order to reduce the surface area of the droplet to a minimum.

**Surface energy.** At an interface there will be a difference in the tendency of each phase to attract its own molecule. Consequently there is always a minimum in the free energy of the surfaces at an interface the net amount of which is called the interfacial energy. At the water-air interface for example the difference in molecular field in the water and air is 17 erg/cm<sup>2</sup>. The interfacial energy of 72 erg/cm<sup>2</sup>.



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A unique property of the surface of the phases that adjoin at an interface is the surface energy which is the result of unbalanced molecular field existing at the surfaces of the two phases. Within the bulk of a given phase the intermolecular forces are uniform because each molecule enjoys a statistically homogeneous field produced by neighboring molecules of the same substance. Molecules in the surface of a phase, however, are surrounded on one side by an entirely different environment with the result that there are intermolecular forces that then tend to pull the surface molecules toward the bulk of the phase. A drop of water molecules tend to assume a spherical shape in order to reduce the surface area of the droplet to a minimum.

**Surface energy.** At an interface there will be a difference in the tendency for each phase to attract its own molecules. Consequently there is always a minimum in the free energy of the surface at an interface, the net amount of which is called the interfacial energy. At the water-air interface for example the difference in molecular field in the water and air surface is unit for the interfacial energy of 72 erg/cm<sup>2</sup>. A total surface

If an other prism is brought up to the first, as in Fig 4 a part of the light is transmitted through the combination. The fraction transmitted depends on the separation between the prisms. The reflectivity is a function of the height of the film. In a filter the film is coated with a low index layer of this kind chosen to give the proper value of the reflectivity. This is covered with a high index

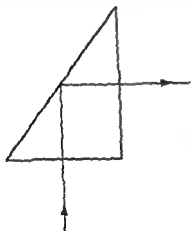


Fig 3 Thin film interference

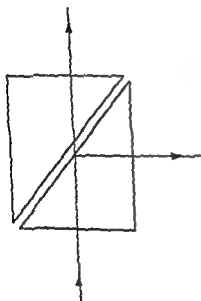


Fig 4 Fabry-Pérot interferometer

layer whose thickness determines the wavelength of the light. The light is then reflected by the second prism. The fraction transmitted reflects at the boundary between the first prism and the low index layer. The second reflection is at the boundary between the high index layer and the second low index layer. The thickness of the low index layer can be adjusted to give a desired reflectivity. The filter is lossless, that is, it absorbs no energy.

The resulting filter can be made to have a bandwidth of less than 6 Å. [BIBLIOGRAPHY] D E Grady (ed) American Institute of Physics Handbook 1957

## Interference of waves

The process whereby two or more waves of the same frequency or wavelength combine to form a wave whose amplitude is the sum of the amplitudes of the interfering waves. The interfering waves can be electromagnetic, acoustic, or water waves, or in fact any periodic disturbance.

The most striking feature of interference is the effect of adding two waves in which the trough of one wave coincides with the peak of another. If the two waves are of equal amplitude they can cancel each other out so that the resulting amplitude is zero. This is perhaps most dramatic in sound waves, it is possible to generate acoustic waves that are perfectly out of phase so that they cancel each other out. In optics, this cancellation can occur for particular wavelengths in a situation where white light is a source. The resulting light will appear colored. This gives rise to the iridescent colors of beetles, wings, and mother-of-pearl, where the substances involved are usually colorless or transparent.

Two beam interference. The quantitative features of the phenomenon can be demonstrated most easily by considering two interfering waves. The amplitude of the first wave at a particular point in space can be written

$$A = A_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi) \quad (1)$$

where  $A_0$  is the peak amplitude and  $\omega$  is  $2\pi$  times the frequency. For the second wave

$$B = B_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi_2) \quad (2)$$

where  $\phi_2 - \phi$  is the phase difference between the two waves. In interference the two waves are superimposed and the resulting wave can be written

$$A + B = A_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi) + B_0 \sin(\omega t + \phi_2) \quad (3)$$

This can be expanded to give

$$A + B = (A_0 \sin \phi_1 + B_0 \sin \phi_2) \cos \omega t + (A_0 \cos \phi_1 + B_0 \cos \phi_2) \sin \omega t \quad (4)$$

By setting

$$A_0 \sin \phi_1 + B_0 \sin \phi_2 = C \sin \phi_3 \quad (5)$$

and

$$A_0 \cos \phi_1 + B_0 \cos \phi_2 = C \cos \phi_3 \quad (6)$$

Equation (4) becomes

$$A + B = C \sin(\omega t + \phi_3) \quad (7)$$

where

$$C^2 = A_0^2 + B_0^2 + 2A_0B_0 \cos(\phi_2 - \phi_1) \quad (8)$$

(S. S. STOKES, THE PRINCIPLES OF OPTICS) When  $C$  is less than  $A$  or  $B$  the interference is called destructive.

and thus the distribution of excited hydrogen over the disk can be determined

Most narrow band interference filters are based on the Fabry Perot interferometer (see INTERFEROMETRY). The Fabry Perot interference filter differs from the interferometer only in the thickness of the space between the partially reflecting layers. In the interferometer this space can be several centimeters. In the filter it is normally a few thousand angstroms. In the simplest filter a glass plate is coated with a layer of silver which is covered by a layer of dielectric and in turn followed by another evaporated layer of semitransparent silver.

**Basic properties.** At all wavelengths at which the dielectric layer has an optical thickness of an integral number of half waves the filter will have a passband. The number of half waves corresponding to a given passband is called the order of the passband. The transmission  $T$  of the filter can be represented by the equation

$$T = \frac{t^2}{(1-r)^2 + 4r \sin^2(\delta/2)}$$

where  $r$  is the reflectivity of the silver film  $t$  the transmission of the film and

$$\delta = \frac{4\pi d}{\lambda} (n^2 - \sin^2 \theta)^{1/2} + 2\gamma$$

where  $d$  is the thickness of the dielectric layer  $n$  its refractive index  $\lambda$  the wavelength  $\gamma$  the phase shift experienced by the light at the metal dielectric boundary and  $\theta$  is the angle of incidence.

By inspection of this equation it is apparent that maxima occur when  $\delta/2 = m\pi$  where  $m$  is an integer.

Some of the quantities which are of interest to the user of these filters are (1) the peak transmission (2) the transmission between peaks (3) the bandwidth and (4) the angular field of view that is the angle through which the filter must be tilted to shift the wavelength of peak transmission a distance equal to the bandwidth.

Each of these quantities can be determined theoretically from the preceding equation. A typical filter has a peak transmission of 40% at its peak wavelength of 5461 Å a transmission between peaks of 0.2% a bandwidth of 100 Å and an angular field of view of 20°. The numbers represent nearly the best that can be done with the simple metal dielectric filter.

**Multilayer types.** An increase in reflectivity can result in narrower bandwidths. There are techniques by which high reflectivities can be achieved which are lossless that is which have no absorption. This results in higher peak transmission and lower off peak transmission. The first is the multilayer filter. In this device the metal layers are replaced by a series of dielectric layers. The boundary between two dielectric layers of refractive indices  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  has a reflecting power of perhaps

4% in the case of glass and air or less for two dielectrics whose indices are close together. The value of the reflectivity  $r$  is given by the standard Fresnel reflection law

$$r = \left( \frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} \right)^2$$

See REFLECTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION).

By making several layers of alternate high and low index dielectric it is possible to reinforce the reflectivity of a single boundary and build it up by multiple reflection to any desired value. It is necessary only that the layers be of such thickness that the reflections from successive boundaries are in phase. When each layer is optically  $\frac{1}{4}$  wavelength in thickness this reinforcement takes place. A complete filter is sketched in Fig. 1. It might con-

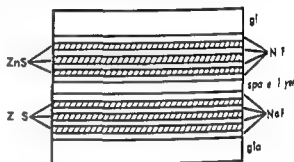


Fig. 1 Schematic diagram of 7-layer solid Fabry Perot filter (From D. E. Gray, ed. *American Institute of Physics Handbook*, McGraw-Hill, 1957).

sist of seven alternate layers of high and low index dielectric of a thickness of  $\frac{1}{4}$  wavelength apiece followed by the dielectric spacer which is an integral number of half waves and which is followed by seven more  $\frac{1}{4}$  wavelength layers. The characteristics of such a filter are shown in Fig. 2. For a seven layer reflection filter the reflectivity can be built up to 95%. One would expect improvement over the metal filter and in fact the peak transmission of such a filter is as high as 80% and the bandwidth as low as 5 Å.

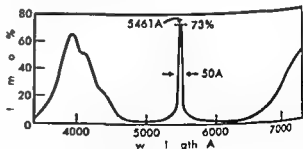


Fig. 2 Transmission of filter shown in Fig. 1 as a function of wavelength (From D. E. Gray, ed. *American Institute of Physics Handbook*, McGraw-Hill, 1957).

**Frustrated reflection.** A second technique is the use of frustrated total internal reflection for the partially reflecting layers of the filter. Light is totally internally reflected when incident on the hypotenuse of a right angle prism as in Fig. 3.

waves in Eqs. (1) and (2) as  $A$  and  $B$  respectively. When the phase shift between them is zero the intensity of the resulting wave is

$$(A+B)^2 = A^2 + 2AB + B^2 \quad (16)$$

This would seem to be a violation of the first law of thermodynamics, since this is greater than the sum of the individual intensities. In any practical experiment, however, it turns out that the energy from the source is equally distributed in space. The excess energy which appears where the interference is constructive will disappear in those places where the energy is destructive. This is illustrated by the fringe pattern in the Young two-slit experiment. The energy on the screen from each slit is not given by the expression

$$E_1 = \int A^2 dy \quad (17)$$

where  $A$  is the intensity of the light from each slit as given by Eq. (10). The intensity from the two slits without interference would be twice this value. The intensity with interference is given by the expression

$$E_2 = \int_0^a 4A^2 \cos^2 \left[ 2\pi \left( \frac{y d}{\lambda} \right) \right] dy \quad (18)$$

The comparison between  $2E_1$  and  $E_2$  need be made only by a geometric argument. The intensity from the two slits must be taken by the expression  $E_1 = \int_0^a 4A^2 \cos^2 \left[ 2\pi \left( \frac{y d}{\lambda} \right) \right] dy$ . From the definition of the average value  $\bar{f} = \frac{1}{a} \int_0^a f dy$ , we find that the average value of  $\cos^2$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$ . Therefore  $E_2 = 2E_1$ .

$$E_1 = 2 \int_0^{a/2} A^2 dy = \frac{A^2 a}{d} \quad (19)$$

With reference to the energy

$$E = \int_0^a 4A^2 \cos^2 \left[ 2\pi \left( \frac{y d}{\lambda} \right) \right] dy \quad (20)$$

This can be written

$$E = \frac{A^2}{d} \int_0^a 4 \cos^2 \phi d\phi = \frac{4A^2 a}{d} \quad (21)$$

The total intensity of the light seen is not changed by the presence of the slits. The energy density at a particular point is, however, different. The most important fact is that the energy is conserved. The energy which will be seen is the same as the energy which would be seen if the slits were not there. The proper phase shift is not given by the expression  $\phi = \frac{2\pi y d}{\lambda}$ .

The double slit experimental procedure of Niels Bohr's principle of complementarity  $F = \text{detailed information in this section}$  QUANTUM MECHANICS

**Free double mirror** Another way of putting the light from the source is the free double mirror. This is illustrated in Fig. 2. Light from the slit  $S_0$  falls on two mirrors  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  which are inclined to each other at an angle of the order of a degree. On a screen where the illumination from the two mirrors is equal there will appear a set of interference fringes. The energy is the same as the energy produced in the two slits per unit area. The light on the screen comes from the images of the slits  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  formed by the two mirrors and these two images are the equivalent of two slits.

**Free biprism** Another way of putting the source is the Fresnel biprism. A ketch of a cross section of this device is shown in Fig. 3. The light from the slit  $S$  is transmitted through the two halves of the prism the source. The beam from each half will strike the screen at a different angle and will appear to come from two sources which are slightly displaced from the original slit. The two images are shown in the ketch at  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . The position will depend on the distance of the prism from the slit  $S$  and on the angle  $\theta$  and index of refraction of the prism material. In Fig. 3  $a$  is the distance of the slit from the biprism and  $d$  is the distance of the biprism from the screen. The distance of the two virtual slits is  $d \sin \theta$  and is thus  $a + l$ . The separation of the two virtual slits

$$d = 2a(\mu - 1)\theta \quad (22)$$

where  $\mu$  is the refractive index of the prism material.

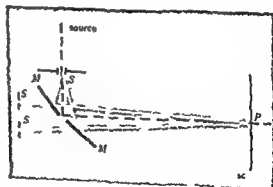


Fig. 2 Free double mirror

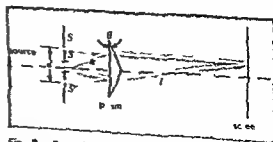


Fig. 3 Fresnel biprism

When it is greater it is called constructive. For electromagnetic radiation such as light the amplitude in Eq. (7) represents an electric field strength. This field is a vector quantity and is associated with a particular direction in space, the direction being generally at right angles to the direction in which the wave is moving. These electric vectors can be added even when they are not parallel. For a discussion of the resulting interference phenomena see POLARIZED LIGHT.

In the case of radio waves or microwaves which are generated with vacuum tube or solid state oscillators the frequency requirement for interference is easily met. In the case of light waves it is more difficult. Here the sources are generally radiating atoms. The smallest frequency spread from such a light source will still have a bandwidth of the order of 10 cycles. Such a bandwidth occurs in a single spectrum line and can be considered a result of the existence of wave trains no longer than  $10^{-8}$  sec. The frequency spread associated with such a pulse can be written

$$\Delta f \approx \frac{1}{2\pi t} \quad (9)$$

where  $t$  is the pulse length. This means that the amplitude and phase of the wave which is the sum of the waves from two such sources will shift at random in times shorter than  $10^{-8}$  sec. In addition the direction of the electric vector will shift in these same time intervals. Light which has such a random direction for the electric vector is termed unpolarized. When the phase shifts and direction changes of the light vectors from two sources are identical the sources are termed coherent.

**Splitting of light sources.** To observe interference with waves generated by atomic or molecular transitions it is necessary to use a single source and to split the light from the source into parts which can then be recombined. In this case the amplitude and phase changes occur simultaneously in each of the parts at the same time.

**Young's two slit experiment.** The simplest technique for producing a splitting from a single source was done by T. Young in 1801 and was one of the first demonstrations of the wave nature of light. In this experiment a narrow slit is illuminated by a source and the light from this slit is caused to illuminate two adjacent slits. The light

from these two parallel slits can interfere and the interference can be seen by letting the light from the two slits fall on a white screen. The screen can be covered with a series of parallel fringes. The location of these fringes can be derived approximately as follows. In Fig. 1  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are the two slits separated by a distance  $d$ . Their plane is a distance  $l$  from the screen. Since the slit  $S_0$  is equidistant from  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  the intensity and phase of the light at each slit will be the same. The light falling on  $P$  from slit  $S_1$  can be represented by

$$A = A_0 \sin 2\pi f \left( t - \frac{x_1}{c} \right) \quad (10)$$

and from  $S_2$

$$B = A_0 \sin 2\pi f \left( t - \frac{x_2}{c} \right) \quad (11)$$

where  $f$  is the frequency,  $t$  the time,  $c$  the velocity of light,  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are the distances of  $P$  from  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  and  $A_0$  is the amplitude. This amplitude is assumed to be the same for each wave since the slits are close together and  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are thus nearly the same. These equations are the same as Eqs. (1) and (2) with  $\phi_1 = x_1/c$  and  $\phi_2 = x_2/c$ . Accordingly the square of the amplitude or the intensity at  $P$  can be written

$$I = 4A_0^2 \cos^2 \frac{2\pi f}{c} (x_1 - x_2) \quad (12)$$

In general  $l$  is very much larger than  $y$  so that Eq. (12) can be simplified to

$$I = 4A_0^2 \cos^2 \pi \left( \frac{y d}{\lambda l} \right) \quad (13)$$

This is a maximum whenever

$$y = n \lambda \frac{l}{d} \quad (14)$$

where  $n$  is an integer. It is a minimum for

$$y = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \lambda \frac{l}{d} \quad (15)$$

Accordingly the screen is covered with a series of light and dark bands which are called interference fringes. If the source behind slit  $S_1$  is white light and thus has a wavelength varying perhaps from 4000 Å to 7000 Å the fringes are visible only where  $x_1 - x_2$  is a few wavelengths. That is, here  $n$  is small. At large values of  $n$  the position of the  $n$ th fringe for red light will be very different from the position for blue light and the fringes will blend together and be washed out. With monochromatic light the fringes will be visible at all values of  $n$  which are determined by the diffraction pattern of the slit. For an explanation of this see DIFFRACTION.

The energy carried by a wave is measured by the intensity which is equal to the square of the amplitude. In the preceding example of the superposition of two waves the intensity is indeterminate.

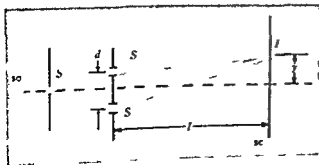


Fig. 1 Young's two-slit interference



Fig 7 Uyd m l rfe

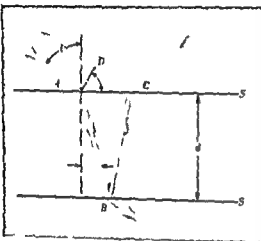


Fig 8 l r f c by f l c n f m d l c t c

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 h f m w r d x t h t h m e d i u m w h h u t  
 m m a n d t h d n m t i l l b e d d e d i n  
 F q (31) n w i l b e m e f f e c t d a t S w i l l  
 p e r t h i x t p h a h f t Th p u r l y p g  
 m t n e e r e s y f h m d d n l p h a e h f t  
 b e u e l d g t h i n y l t h r e  
 f l e c t e d l g h t h t l f S d s l m t  
 e n f W i t h u s t h t p h a e h f t t h t w  
 f l e c t e d b e a m l l b e n p h a n d t h r f l e c  
 t a f l m f a n g t h k C o n t u s t  
 t f l l t k p l t w s l n g t h f w h b  
 d a m h r m l t t g r l t h u f  
 d a a p f f t h f n g e r s w i l l b e l o c a t d  
 p e l l t f f l t h n t p a l l e d w i l l  
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 t h p o f f l e c t p f f t f e a  
 f r k f p f f f O b s e r v a t i o n o f  
 t n g t t t p e n e e d t d s m t h  
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l g h t i r r e f l e c t e d f r m t h t w o u r f a c e a n d e x a m  
 e d a i n F i g 8 O n o f t h f i r t e x p e m n t s w i t h  
 f i n g e r s o f t h i s t y p e w a s p e r f o r m e d b y S r l a c  
 N e w t o n A c o n v x l n s i p e e d a g a i n t a g l a s  
 p l a t a n d i l l u m i n a t e d w i t h m o n o c h r m a t i c l i g h t A  
 e s o f c i c l r i n t e r f e r e c e f r i n g e s k n o w n a s  
 N e w t o n s r g s a p p e a r a o d t h p u t o f c o n t a c t  
 F r m t h e p a r a t i o b t w e e t h e f i n g e r s i t p  
 o b l e t d e t e r m i n t h e r a d i u s o f c u r v a t u r e o f t h e  
 l n

T h n f i l m s I n t e r f e r e n c e f a g e s f t h i s t w o - s u r  
 f a c e t y p e a r e r e p o s s i b l e f r t h e c o l o r s w h i c h a p  
 p a r n o l f i l m f l a t t i n g o w t r H e m t h e t w o  
 s u r f a c e a r t h i l a r i n t e r f e c e a n d t h e m l w a t e r  
 i s t h e f a c e T h e f i l m s a r c l o e t a s i b l e l i g h t  
 w a v e l e n g t h i n t h i k n I f t h e t h i c k n e s s i s s u c h  
 t h a t i n a p a r t i c u l a r d i r e c t i o n d e s t r u c t i v e i n t e r f e r  
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 b e e f f e c t e d a n d t h e f i l m w i l l h a s t r o g p u r p l e  
 a p p e a n e T h i s m e g e e a l p h e n o m e n o n i s r e  
 p o s s i b l e f r t h c l o r s o f b e e t l a w n g

C h n e l e d s p c t m A m p l i t u d e s p l i t t i n g w h a s  
 c l a y a n t h r o d u s i o n t h a t m u s t b e s a t i s f i e d f o r  
 t r f r e c e t o t a k e p l a s T h e b e a m s f r o n t h e  
 s o u r c e m u t n o t n l y c o m e f r m i d e n t i c a l p o i n t s  
 b u t t h e y m u s t a l o r i g i n a t e f o m t h e s a m e p o i n t  
 e r l y t h e m e t i m e T h e l i g h t w h h a s e f f e c t d  
 f r o m C i n F g 8 o r i g i n a t e s f r m t h e o r c e l a t e r  
 t h a n t h e l i g h t w h h m a k e s a d o b l t r a v e r s a l b e  
 t w e e S a d S I f t h e s r f a c e s a e t f r a p a r t  
 t h e s p e c t a l g a s o f c o t u t i e a n d d t r e c t i  
 o n t r f n b e c o m e s o l e t g e t h e r t h a t t h y  
 e a o t b e e l e v e d I n t h e a o f i n t e r f e n c b y  
 w a v e f r t p l i t t i n g t h e l i g h t f r m d f f e n t p a r t  
 o f s o c c o u l d o n l y b e c o n d e r e d c o h e r e n t i f  
 e x a m i n e d o e u f f n i l y i n t i m i t e r v l I n  
 t h e a s e f a m p l i t u d e s p l i t t i n g t h e i n t e r f e n c e  
 w h e s r f e s a r w i d e l y s e p a r a t e d c a o n l y b e  
 e e i f m u d r a u f f e n i l y n a r w f r e  
 q u e n c y i n t r a l I f t h t w s r f a c e a r i l l u m i n a t e d  
 w i t h w h i t e l i g h t a n d t h e y e i s u e d a s t h e a n a  
 l y i n t e r f e c a n t b e e n w h e n t h e p a r  
 a t n i s m r e t h a n a f w w a l n g t h T h e i n t e r v a l  
 b e t w e e n u c e s w l n g t h f c o n t u t i e i n  
 t r f r n b e m e o s m a l l t h t e a c h s p e c t r a l r e  
 g n t w h c t t h e y e e n t i e i l l u m i n a t e d  
 a d c l r e e n I n t h e c a s e t h i n t e r f e r e n c e  
 a g i n b e e e h y e x m n g t h e m e t d l i g h t  
 w i t h p e c t s c o p e T h p e t m w i l l b e c r o e d  
 w i t h t l d a r k f l g a t t h o e w a v e l e n g t h s f o r  
 w h i c h t h e s d t u t i n t f e n c e T h i s i  
 c l l e d a c h n e l d p e c t m F o r l a r g e p a r a t n  
 o f t h e f a a t h e p a r a t o n b e t w e e t h w m  
 l n g t h f d e a r t i n t e r f e r e n c e b e c m e s m a l l r  
 t h a n t h r e s o l u t i o n o f t h e s p e c t r m e t e r a d t h e  
 f r g r n l o g r a b l

F s l c o f f e r s T h a m p l i t u d e o f t h e l i g h t  
 f l e c t e d a t n m a l c i l f r m a d e l e c t r s u  
 f a i g n b y t h F r n e l f f e c t

$$I = A_0 \frac{n -}{n_1 +} \quad (37)$$



rial This can be put in Eq (14) for the two slit interference pattern to give

$$y = n\lambda \frac{a + l}{2a(\mu - 1)\theta} \quad (23)$$

for the position of a bright fringe

A photograph of the experimental equipment for demonstrating interference with the Fresnel biprism is shown in Fig 4 A typical fringe pattern is shown in Fig 5 This pattern was obtained with a mercury arc source which has several strong spectrum lines accounting in part for the intensity variation in the pattern The pattern is also modified by diffraction at the apex of the prism

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**Lloyd's mirror** An important technique of splitting the source is with Lloyd's mirror This is

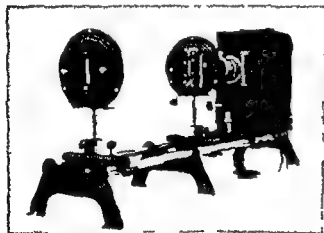


Fig 4 Equipment for demonstrating Fresnel biprism interference

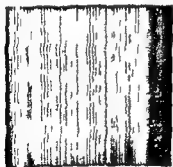


Fig 5 Interference fringes obtained with Fresnel biprism and mercury arc light source

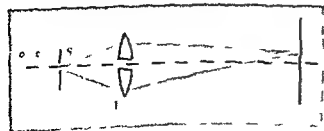


Fig 6 Billet split lens interference

sketched in Fig 7 in which the slit  $S_1$  and its virtual image  $S_2$  constitute the double source Part of the light falls directly on the screen and part is reflected at grazing incidence from a plane mirror This experiment differs from the previous Lloyd's mirror experiments in that the two beams are no longer identical If the screen is moved to a point where it is nearly in contact with the mirror the fringe of zero path difference will lie on the intersection of the mirror plane with the screen This fringe turns out to be dark rather than light as in the case of the previous interference experiments The only explanation for this result is that light experiences a  $180^\circ$  phase shift on reflection from a material of higher refractive index than its surrounding medium The equation for maximum and minimum light intensity at the screen must thus be interchanged for Lloyd's mirror fringes

**Amplitude splitting** The interference experiments discussed have all been done by splitting the wavefront of the light coming from the source The energy from the source can also be split in amplitude With such amplitude splitting techniques, the light from the source falls on a surface which is partially reflecting Part of the light is transmitted part is reflected and after further manipulation these parts are recombined to give the interference In one type of experiment the light transmitted through the surface is reflected from a second surface back through the partially reflecting surface where it combines with the wave reflected from the first surface This is illustrated in Fig 8 Here the arrow represents the normal to the wavefront of the light passing through surface  $S_1$  to surface  $S_2$  The wave is incident at  $A$  and  $C$  The section at  $A$  is partially transmitted to  $B$  where it is again partially reflected to  $C$  The wave leaving  $C$  now consists of two parts one of which has traveled a longer distance than the other These two waves will interfere Let  $AD$  be the perpendicular from the ray at  $A$  to the ray going to  $C$  The path difference will be

$$\Delta = 2\mu(AB) - (CD) \quad (24)$$

where  $\mu$  is the refractive index of the medium between the surfaces  $S_1$  and  $S_2$

$$(AB) = d/\cos r \quad (25)$$

$$(CD) = 2(AB) \sin r \cos i \quad (26)$$

From Snell's law

$$\sin i = \mu \sin r \quad (27)$$

$$\text{and thus} \quad \Delta = \frac{2\mu d}{\cos r} - \frac{2\mu d}{\cos r} \sin^2 r \quad (28)$$

$$= 2\mu d \cos r \quad (29)$$

The difference in terms of wavelength and the phase difference are respectively

$$\Delta = \frac{2\mu d \cos r}{\lambda} \quad (30)$$

$$\Delta\phi = \frac{4\pi\mu d \cos r}{\lambda} + \pi \quad (31)$$



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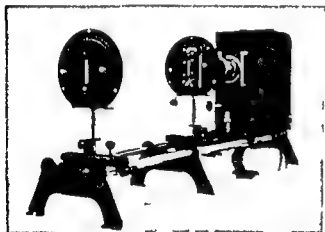


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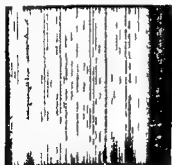


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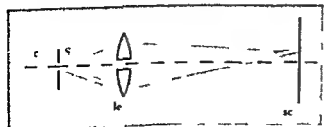


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$$\Delta = 2\mu(AB) - (CD) \quad (1)$$

where  $\mu$  is the refractive index of the medium between the surfaces  $S_1$  and  $S$

$$(AB) = d/\cos r \quad (a)$$

$$(CD) = 2(AB) \sin r \cos i \quad (b)$$

From Snell's law

$$\sin i = \mu \sin r \quad (2)$$

$$\text{and thus } \Delta = \frac{2\mu d}{\cos r} - \frac{2\mu d}{\cos r} \sin^2 r \quad (3)$$

$$= 2\mu d \cos r \quad (4)$$

The difference in terms of wavelength and the phase difference are respectively

$$\Delta = \frac{2\mu d \cos r}{\lambda} \quad (5)$$

$$\Delta\phi = \frac{2\pi\mu d \cos r}{\lambda} + \pi \quad (6)$$



where  $A_0$  is the amplitude of the incident wave and  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the refractive indices of the materials in the order in which they are encountered by the light. In the simple case of a dielectric sheet the intensity of the light reflected normally will be

$$C = A + B^2 + 2AB \cos \varphi \quad (32)$$

where  $B$  is the amplitude of the wave which has passed through the sheet and is reflected from the second surface and back through the sheet to join  $A$ . The value of  $B$  is given by

$$B = \frac{n_2 - n_1}{n_2 + n_1} \quad (34)$$

where the approximation is made that the intensity of the light is unchanged by passing through the first surface and where  $n_2$  is the index of the material at the boundary of the far side of the sheet.

**Nonreflecting film.** An interesting application of Eq. (33) is the nonreflecting film. A single dielectric layer is evaporated onto a glass surface to reduce the reflectivity of the surface to the smallest possible value. From Eq. (33) it is clear that this takes place when  $\cos \varphi = -1$ . If the surface is used in an instrument with a broad spectral range such as a visual device the film thickness should be adjusted to put the interference minimum in the first order and in the middle of the desired spectral range. For the eye this wavelength is approximately in the yellow so that such films reflect in the red and blue and appear purple. The index of the film should be chosen to make  $C^2 = 0$ . At this point

$$(A - B)^2 = 0 \quad (35)$$

$$\frac{n_1 - n_2}{n_1 + n_2} = \frac{n_2 - n_3}{n_2 + n_3} \quad (36)$$

$$n_1 n_2 - n_1 n_3 - n_2 n_3 = n_1 n_3 - n_1 n_2 + n_2 - n_2 n_3 \quad (37)$$

This can be reduced to

$$n = \sqrt{n_1 n_3} \quad (38)$$

In the case of a glass surface in air  $n_1 = 1$  and  $n_3 \approx 1.5$ . Magnesium fluoride is a substance which is frequently used as a nonreflective coating since it is hard and approximately satisfies the relation ship of Eq. (38). The purpose of reducing the reflection from an optical element is to increase its transmission since the energy which is not reflected is transmitted. In the case of a single element this increase is not particularly important. Some optical instruments may have 15% air glass surface loss and the coating of the surface gives a tremendous increase in transmission.

**Haidinger fringes.** When the second surface in two-surface interference is partially reflecting interference can also be observed in the wave transmitted through both surfaces. The interference fringe will be complementary to the appearing in reflection. Their location will depend on the

parallelism of the surfaces. For plane parallel surfaces the fringes will appear at infinity and will be concentric rings. They were first observed by W. K. Haidinger and are called Haidinger fringes.

**Multiple beam interference.** If the surfaces  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are strongly reflecting it is necessary to consider multiple reflections between them. For glass surfaces this does not apply since the reflectivity is of the order of 4% and the twice-reflected beam is much reduced in intensity.

In Fig. 9 the situation in which the surfaces  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  have reflectivities  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  is shown. The space between the surfaces has an index  $n$  and thickness  $d$ . An incident light beam of amplitude  $A$  is partially reflected at the first surface. The transmitted component is reflected at  $S_2$  and is reflected back to  $S_1$  where a second splitting takes place. This is repeated. Each successive component of the waves leaving  $S_1$  is retarded with respect to the next. The amount of each retardation is given by

$$\varphi = \frac{4\pi nd}{\lambda} \cos \theta \quad (39)$$

Equation (7) was derived for the superposition of two waves. It is possible to derive a similar expression for the superposition of many waves. From Fig. 9 the different waves at a plane some distance above  $S_1$  can be represented by the following expressions

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Incident wave} &= A \sin \omega t \\ \text{First reflected wave} &= A r_1 \sin \omega t \\ \text{Second reflected wave} &= A(1 - r_1^2) r_2 \sin(\omega t + \varphi) \\ \text{Third reflected wave} &= -A(1 - r_1^2) r_1 r_2^2 \sin(\omega t + 2\varphi) \end{aligned} \quad (40)$$

By inspection of the  $m$  terms one can write down the complete series. As in Eq. (3) the infinite term can be broken down and coefficients collected by a simpler method is to multiply each term by  $\sqrt{-1}$  and add a cosine term with the same coefficient and argument. The individual term then is all of the form

$$B e^{-i m \varphi} e^{i m \varphi} \quad (41)$$

where  $m$  is an integer

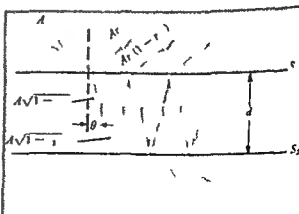
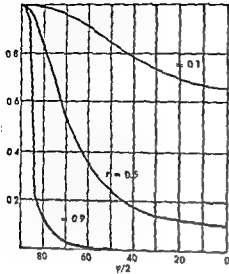


Fig. 9 Multiple reflection of a wave between two surfaces



10 The shape of multiple-beam interference fringes

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$$R = \frac{1 + \frac{1}{N^2}}{1 + \frac{1}{N^2}} \quad (42)$$

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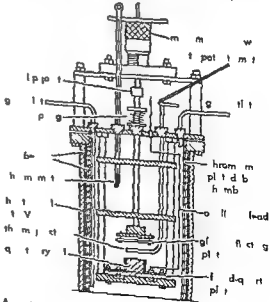
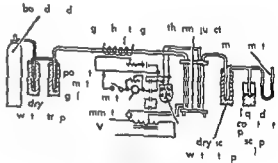
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a silvered mica surface and a partially silvered glass flat surface INTERFERENCE FILTER OPTICAL INTERFERENCE FILTER [BIBLIOGRAPHY] Bibliography M B R and E Wolf Principles of Optics 1959 O S Heavens Optical Properties of Thin Solid Films 1955 F A Jenkins and H E White Fundamentals of Physical Optics 3d ed 1957 J Stog Concpts of Classical Optics 1958

## Interferometer acoustic

A device for measuring the velocity and attenuation of sound waves in a gas or liquid. It operates by sending an ultrasonic beam of sound waves through the medium to be measured in order to obtain a standing wave system between the driving crystal and a reflector whose distance from the crystal can be varied by a screw system. The illustration shows a typical system for studying the velocity and attenuation of a gas at various temperatures. The top part of the illustration shows a system for purifying the gas which is then admitted to the interference chamber shown at the bottom. The whole unit is placed in a thermally insulated jacket which makes it possible to regulate the temperature with close limits.

An oscillator attached to the crystal and tuned to the crystal resonant frequency. The arrangement



A typical arrangement for measuring the velocity and attenuation of sound waves in a gas at various temperatures.

the amplitude of current from the oscillator is measured as the distance between the crystal and the reflector is varied. At half wavelength intervals sharp dips occur in the received current indicating that a high mechanical impedance is impressed on the end of the vibrating crystal by the standing wave system between the crystal surface and the reflecting plate. By counting the number of half wavelengths  $n$  occurring in a given displacement  $l$  of the reflecting plate and knowing accurately the frequency of vibration  $f$  one determines the velocity of propagation  $v$  by the formula

$$v = \frac{2lf}{n}$$

The attenuation can be determined by the rate at which the maximum and minimum current values change with distance. Such instruments can measure velocities to within 1 part in 10,000 and at attenuation values within a few per cent. See ULTRASONICS [W. P. M.]

## Interferometry

The design and use of optical interferometer devices in which interference of light is used as a tool in metrology and spectroscopy. The uses include precise measurement of wavelength, the measurement of very small distances and thicknesses by using known wavelength, the detailed study of the hyperfine structure of spectrum lines, the precise determination of refractive indices and in astronomy the measurement of binary star separations and the diameters of stars. Optical interferometers are based on both two beam interference and multiple beam interference. They are also based on wavefront splitting and amplitude splitting.

**Rayleigh Interferometer.** Perhaps the simplest type of interferometer is the Rayleigh interferometer which is essentially a modification of the instrument used in Young's double slit interference experiment (see INTERFERENCE OF WAVES). In Young's experiment the two slits are on the order of 1 mm apart. In the Rayleigh instrument (Fig. 1) the two slits  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are of the order of 1 cm apart and  $1/4$  cm wide. They are illuminated with parallel light from a lens  $L_1$  at whose focus is a single narrow slit  $S$ . A second lens  $L_2$  spaced several centimeters from the first brings the two beams to a focus where interference fringes become visible. The instrument is used to measure the refractive indices of liquid and gas and in this fashion can serve also as a means of chemical analysis.



Fig. 1 Rayleigh interferometer

Cells ( $C_1$  and  $C_2$  in Fig. 1) are placed in front of each slit and matched so that when empty the central bright fringe in the interference pattern is not displaced. The material of interest is then placed in one cell and the comparison material in the other. If the refractive indices of the two materials are different the fringes will shift and this shift is a measure of the index difference.

To make the fringe shift easy to detect the cells are built to cover only half of the length of each slit. At the focus of the second lens there will accordingly appear two sets of fringes separated optically from each other. One set involves a part of the beams which does not pass through the cell. It remains motionless when a gas or liquid is put into either cell and acts thus as a series of reference marks for the displacement. In front of the cells are two plates of glass  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ . The cells add a retardation  $(\mu - 1)t$  to each beam where  $\mu$  is the index of refraction of the glass and  $t$  is its thickness. One of the plates can be tilted thus adding a phase shift to one of the beams. When the phase shift is equal and opposite to the phase difference in the beam caused by the refractive index difference between the contents of the two cells, the fringes will be displaced back to the zero position. They will then match the fringes produced by the beams which do not pass through the cell. In this way the instrument can be operated in a fashion and becomes much more precise than if an attempt were made to measure the fringe shifts with a scale.

The Rayleigh interferometer is an extremely sensitive tool for the detection of impurities in gases and solutions. With 100 cm cell helium in air can be detected at a concentration of 60 parts in  $10^8$ . This represents an index difference of approximately  $1 \times 10^{-8}$ .

**Michelson stellar interferometer.** This device solves most dramatically the problem of measuring the diameter of stars which are as small as 0.01 sec of arc. This task is impossible with an optical telescope in the resolution obtainable even with the largest telescope not much better than 1 sec of arc.

The Michelson stellar interferometer is a simple adaptation of Young's two slit experiment. In it form two slits were placed over the aperture of a telescope. If the object being observed were a true point source the image would be covered with a set of interference bands. A second point source separated by a small angle from the first would produce a second set of fringes. At certain values of this angle the bright fringes in one set will coincide with the dark fringes in the second set. The small angle  $\alpha$  at which the coincidence occurs will be that angle subtended at the slit by the separation of the peak of the central bright fringe from the nearest dark fringe. This angle is given by the expression

$$\frac{\lambda}{2d} = \alpha \quad (1)$$





then moved and fringes counted until the distance of mirror  $M_1$  from the beam splitter was equal to the distance from the beam splitter of the mirror at the other end of the etalon. This operation gave the length of the smallest etalon in terms of the red cadmium line. The second etalon was then placed beside the first and their end mirrors aligned with the interferometer until both showed the black white light fringe. This signified that the two mirrors were exactly the same distance from the beam splitter. The movable mirror  $M_1$  was then shifted until the white light fringe appeared at the other end of the smallest etalon. This etalon was then moved until the white light fringe appeared in the mirror at its other end. It had then been shifted a distance exactly equal to the separation between its two mirrors. Again mirror  $M_1$  was moved until the black fringe appeared in the mirror at the other end of the etalon. This mirror was then separated from the scan mirror of the second largest etalon by a distance equal to twice the length of the smallest etalon. If the larger etalon were exactly equal to twice the smallest a white light fringe would appear in its mirror also. With monochromatic light it was easy to count the fringes which represented the differential between the two mirrors. A repetition of this procedure with larger etalons gave an exact measure of the length of the 10 cm etalon. The meter was then measured by repeating the mirror alignment procedure with 10 successive shifts of this longest etalon. By a recent repetition of these measurements the length of the meter was determined to be 1553 164 1 wavelengths of the cadmium red line in standard air.

**Interference spectroscopy.** The Michelson interferometer is also an interesting as a spectroscopy. Consider first the case of two close spectrum lines as a light source for the instrument. As the mirror  $M_1$  is shifted fringes from each line will cross the field. At certain path difference between  $M_1$  and  $M$  the fringes will be out of phase and will be essentially disappear at other points they will be in phase and will be reinforced. By measuring the distance between successive maxima in fringe contrast it is possible to determine the wavelength difference between the lines.

This is a simple illustration of a very broad use for any two-beam interferometer. As the path length is changed the variation in intensity of the light coming from an interferometer give information on the basis of which the spectrum of the input light can be derived. The equation for the intensity of the emergent energy can be written

$$I(t) = \int_0^\infty I(\lambda) \cos^2 \frac{\beta t}{\lambda} d\lambda \quad (3)$$

where  $\beta$  is a constant and  $I(\lambda)$  is the intensity of the incident light of wavelength  $\lambda$ . This equation applies when the mirror  $M_1$  is moved linearly with time from the position where the path difference with  $M_2$  is zero to a position which depends on the longest wavelength in the spectrum to

be examined. From Eq. (3) it is possible mathematically to recover the spectrum  $I(\lambda)$ . In certain situations such as in the infrared beyond 15  $\mu$ , this technique has several advantages over conventional spectroscopy. The detector looks at all wavelengths 50% of the time. The integration time is equal to one half the length of time taken by the whole scan. In a conventional infrared spectrometer the integration time is the time taken by the monochromator slit to traverse one resolvable unit of wavelength (see INFRARED SPECTROSCOPY). For a discussion of the use of the Michelson interferometer in the celebrated Michelson Morley experiment see LIGHT.

**Fabry Perot interferometer.** A simpler device than the Michelson interferometer is the Fabry Perot interferometer sketched in Fig. 4. The two glass plates are partially silvered on the inner surfaces and the incoming wave is multiply reflected between the two surfaces. Hence the device is called a multiple beam interferometer.

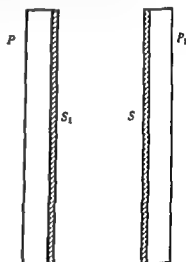


Fig. 4. Fabry Perot interferometer.  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  glass plates;  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  partially transmitting layers of silver.

The Fabry Perot interferometer is used in transmission. The expression for transmission  $T$  is

$$T = \frac{t^2}{(1-r)^2 + 4 \sin^2 \{ (2\pi nd/\lambda) \cos \theta + \gamma \}} \quad (4)$$

where  $d$  is the separation of the surfaces,  $\theta$  the angle of incidence,  $\gamma$  the phase shift for a reflector at the silver surface,  $t$  the transmission of the silver surface,  $r$  its reflectivity, and  $n$  the refractive index of the air between the plate. When a monochromatic light source is viewed through the interferometer it will appear as a series of rings. These occur at the angles which make

$$2\pi nd \cos \theta = (m + \frac{1}{2})\lambda_0 \quad (5)$$

where  $\lambda_0$  is the wavelength of the light and  $m$  is an integer.

If a series of spectrum lines is transmitted through the instrument the angles at which the



fringes are located at the virtual intersection of the two reflecting mirrors. In the Mach Zehnder device the mirrors can be adjusted so that the fringes are located at the plane of the model being studied. In this fashion they can be photographed simultaneously with the model so that their geometric position with respect to the model can be precisely determined. See SHOCK WAVE DISPLAY [B H B I]

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## Intermediate frequency amplifier

A tuned amplifier employed in the amplification of the signals produced by the mixer in a radio receiver. Because the carrier frequency of the modulated signal from the mixer is essentially constant the resonant frequency of the amplifier is a fixed value.

The proper design of the intermediate frequency (i.f.) amplifier is essential for good selectivity and reproduction of the original transmitted signal. If the amplifier is tuned too sharply the high frequency components of the modulating signal will be lost. To avoid this stagger tuning of the individual stages may be used. In a stagger tuned amplifier the resonant frequency of each stage is slightly different from the carrier frequency with the result that the gain is essentially constant over the bandwidth of the modulated signal. The gain decreases rapidly at frequencies outside this band.

The standard i.f. frequency for broadcast radio receivers is 455 kc. Other frequencies are used depending upon the particular application such as television receivers or radar receivers. See AMPLIFIER [H F K.]

## Intermetallic compounds

If two metals are melted together in certain proportions the result is generally an alloy. It is also possible to form alloys by solid state reaction by application of the powder metallurgy technique. Depending on the component metals and their proportions the alloy may consist of a single phase or of several phases. Single phase alloys may be either of the solid solution type or intermetallic compound. According to the Handbook of Metals an intermetallic compound is defined as a compound

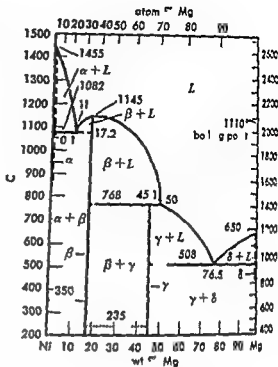


Fig. 2. Magnesium-nickel phase diagram.

of two or more metals with a characteristic crystal structure and may have a definite composition or range of compositions corresponding to a solid solution.

The difference between solid solution alloys and intermetallic compounds can be illustrated with comparison of characteristic phase diagrams. Figure 1 shows the phase diagram of two components (for example copper and nickel) which form a solid solution alloy—a typical phase diagram for two metals which form an intermetallic compound is shown in Fig. 2. The intermetallic compound appears in the phase diagram as a vertical line and in this structure relationship may be treated in the same manner as a pure metal. The elements present in an intermetallic compound unite in definite atomic proportion, similar to true chemical compounds, but unlike the chemical compounds they do not follow simple valence rules because all the metal has its valences.

In the solid solution copper-nickel system all the alloys of the various compositions are of face-centered cubic structure and the lattice parameter varies linearly with the atom concentration of the two components from  $a = 3.61 \text{ Å}$  for copper to  $a = 3.54 \text{ Å}$  for nickel where  $\text{Å}$  is a constant and  $\text{Å}$  is the atomic unit.

The solubility of nickel with magnesium results in two intermetallic compounds as shown in Fig. 2. The phase diagram of the precise titanium-tungsten system shows the  $\gamma$  phase is precipitated from the liquid in this system are of the complex hexagonal structure (Mg) and of the face-centered cubic structure (Ni) where the example in the intermetallic compound (NiMg) the atoms are regularly arranged. The interatomic distance for the intermetallic compound NiMg is  $3.81 \text{ Å}$  where  $\text{Å}$  is the distance for Mg.

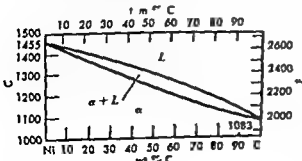


Fig. 1. Copper-nickel phase diagram.

3 2028k1 d for N 3.5167kx The intermetallic compound is expected to display a density hardness strength ductility and thermal properties from the composition which they are formed. They have been found to be suitable for high melting point and oxidation resistance of certain intermetallic compounds.

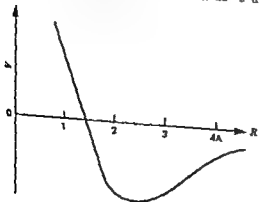
I see that the intermetallic compounds formed of an element from group III of the periodic table with an element of group IV Compound of this type shows semiconducting properties very similar to the elemental element of the germanium silicon and gray tin for up IV for example diamond is a tiny bit very similar to gray tin in its properties such as lattice packing, atomic weight and the electrical resistivity. Ruffien on and trace to the primary importance of the intermetallic compounds of the V-S ALLOY ALLOY STRUCTURES CERMET EQUILIBRIUM PHASE NO STOICHIOMETRIC COMPOUNDS SEMICONDUCTOR SOLID-STATE CHEMISTRY

Bibliography Am Soc Metal Metal Hand  
book 1948

### Intermolecular forces

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General characteristics of the family

the forces which correspond to it are called exchange forces (a term expressing the mathematical origin of the force which arises mathematically from certain exchange properties of the molecular energy state function). Exchange forces can also be attractive. This is the case for atoms which enter into chemical combination. The curve in the figure then has a very deep minimum at distances of the order of  $1.2 \text{ \AA}$  from the origin (for the simplest case). Attractive exchange forces are called valence forces and play an important role through out chemistry.

Repulsive exchange forces account for the mechanical rigidity, impenetrability, and the steepness of the potential energy curve in the exchange force domain gives rise to the limited compressibility of matter.

**Long range forces** Long range intermolecular forces are often called Van der Waals forces because they lead to the Van der Waals equation of state (the VAN DER WAALS EQUATION). In particular the constant  $a$  in that equation is a measure of the strength. For uncoupled nonpolar molecules the forces are attractive. These forces give rise to a large variety of physical and chemical phenomena such as surface tension, friction, adhesion and cohesion, diffusion, the Joule-Thomson effect, the dependence of gas pressure on the density, the dielectric coefficient, the Van der Waals forces in the solid state, etc.

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forces (F London) At large distance of separation the potential energy associated with dispersion forces is proportional to  $-R^{-6}$

A further development of the theory shows that the interaction involves not only the interplay between the rapidly fluctuating dipoles considered in the dispersion effect but also the production of higher order multipoles (H Margenau) The emergence to asymptotic interactions proportional to  $R^{-8}$  (dipole quadrupole interaction)  $R^{-11}$  (quadrupole quadrupole and dipole octupole interaction) and so forth

Only for symmetric molecules are the intermolecular forces independent of the orientation of the molecular axes with respect to the line joining the molecules In general they display features which are not indicated in the figure They are functions of angles and therefore noncentral forces Moreover when more than two molecules interact the total potential energy of the system is not necessarily the sum of the potential energies of all pairs Additivity in this sense holds only for the simpler kinds of dispersion forces Also Van der Waals forces between molecules carrying permanent multipoles and between atoms or molecules in excited states can be repulsive as well as attractive

The relative role played by the different constituents of the Van der Waals forces is generally difficult to assess There are only a few instances in which one type dominates all others In the case of  $H_2O$  at a distance of separation equal to the diameter of the molecule as given by kinetic theory the induction alignment and dispersion effects are all of comparable magnitude In the case of the dispersion forces the terms proportional to  $R^{-6}$ ,  $R^{-8}$  and  $R^{-10}$  are of comparable importance

**Shape of potential curve** It is customary to derive information concerning the parameter of the curve in the figure from collective information of virial coefficient, vibrational energy and so forth This has led to the use of empirical approximation to the true intermolecular force curve Most widely used is the Lennard-Jones potential which has the form

$$V = \frac{A}{R^{12}} - \frac{B}{R^6}$$

with proper choice of the constants  $A$  and  $B$  This equation has provided many useful results The intermolecular potential curve has also been successfully calculated from first principles of quantum mechanics but the complexity of the calculation has restricted the effort to the simplest molecule See CHEMICAL BINDING MOLECULAR STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA QUANTUM THEORY NON RELATIVISTIC SOLUTION STATISTICAL MECHANICS VALENCE.

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## Internal combustion engine

A prime mover the fuel for which is burned within the engine as contrasted to a steam engine (see example in which fuel is burned in a separate furnace (see ENGINE) The most numerous of internal combustion engines are the gasoline piston engines used in passenger automobile outboard engines for motor boat small units for lawn mowers and other such equipment as well as diesel engines used in truck tractor earth moving and other equipment This article describes the types of engines For other types of internal combustion engines see GAS TURBINE ROCKET ENGINE TURBINE PROPULSION The piston engine used in aircraft is fundamentally the same as that used in automobiles but is engineered for light weight and is usually air cooled See AIRCRAFT ENGINE RECIPROCATING

### ENGINE TYPES

Characteristic features common to all commercial internal combustion engines include (1) the compression of air (2) the raising of air temperature by the combustion of fuel in the air at its elevated pressure (3) the extraction of work from the heated air by expansion to the initial pressure and (4) exhaust William Barnett first drew attention to the theoretical advantages of combustion under compression in 1838 In 1864 Beau de Rochas published a treatise that emphasized the value of combustion under pressure and a high ratio of expansion for fuel economy He proposed the four stroke engine cycle as a means of accomplishing the condition in a piston engine (Fig 1) The engine requires two revolutions of the crankshaft to complete one combustion cycle The first engine to use this cycle successfully was built in 1876 by Nikolaus Otto (see OTTO CYCLE)

Two years later Sir Dougald Clerk developed the two stroke engine cycle by which a similar combustion cycle required only one revolution of the crankshaft In this cycle exhaust ports in the cylinder were uncovered by the piston as it approached the end of its power stroke and closed in later then pumped a charge of air to the working cylinder through a check valve when the piston pressure exceeded that in the working cylinder

In 1891 Joseph Day simplified the two-stroke engine cycle by using the crankshaft to pump the required air The compression stroke of the working piston draws the fresh mixture charge through a check valve into the crankcase and the next power stroke of the piston compresses this charge The piston uncovers the exhaust port at the end of the power stroke and slightly later uncovers the intake port opposite it to admit the improved charge from the crankcase A baffled usually provided in the piston head to lift the large volume of the cylinder to a height remaining burned gas down the oil rails and out the exhaust port with a little mixing as possible



forces (F Lond 7). At large distances of separation the potential energy is associated with dispersion forces proportional to  $-R^{-6}$ .

A further development of the theory shows that the interaction involves not only the interplay between the rapidly fluctuating dipole considered in the dispersion effect but also the production of higher-order multipoles (H Margenau). These give rise to a triplet interaction proportional to  $R^{-7}$  (dipole-quadrupole interaction),  $R^{-8}$  (quadrupole-quadrupole and dipole-octupole interaction) and so forth.

Only for symmetric molecules are the intermolecular forces independent of the orientation of the molecular axes with respect to the line joining the molecules. In general they display features which are not indicated in the figure. They are functions of angles and therefore noncentral forces. Moreover, when more than two molecules interact the total potential energy of the system is not necessarily the sum of the potential energies of all pairs. Additionally in this case hold only for the simpler kind of dispersion forces. Also, Van der Waal forces between molecules carrying permanent multipoles and between atoms or molecules in excited states can be repulsive as well as attractive.

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with proper choice of the constants  $A$  and  $B$ . The equation has provided many useful results. The intermolecular potential curve has also been successfully calculated from first principles of quantum mechanics, but the complexity of the calculation has restricted these efforts to the simplest molecules. See CHEMICAL BINDING; MOLECULAR STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA; QUANTUM THEORY; RELATIVISTIC SOLUTIONS; STATISTICAL MECHANICS; VALENCE.

**Bibliography.** J. O. Hirschfelder, C. F. Curtiss, and R. F. Bird, *Molecular Theory of Gases and Liquids*, 1954; H. Margenau, Van der Waal forces, *Revs. Mod. Phys.* 11(1) 1-100, 1939.

## Internal combustion engine

A prime mover the fuel for which is burned in the engine as contrasted to a steam engine in which the fuel is burned in a separate furnace (see EXHAUST). The most numerous of internal combustion engines are the gasoline engines used in passenger automobiles, on board of motor boats, small airplanes for lawnmowers and other such equipment, as well as diesel engines used in trucks, tractors, earthmovers and other equipment. This article describes these types of engines. For other types of internal combustion engines, see (4) TURBINE; (5) ROCKETS AND MISSILES; (6) PROPULSION. The piston engine used in aircraft is fundamentally the same as that used in automobiles but is engineered for high speeds and is usually air-cooled. See AIRCRAFT ENGINE; TURBOCHARGING.

### ENGINE TYPES

Characteristic features common to all commercial successful internal combustion engines include (1) the compression of air (2) the raising of air temperature by the combustion of fuel in the air at an elevated pressure (3) the extraction of work from the heated air by expansion at high pressure and (4) exhaust. William Rankine drew attention to the theoretical advantages of combustion under compression in 1858. In 1880 Beau de Rochas published a treatise in which he calculated the value of combustion under pressure and high rates of expansion for fuel economy. He proposed the four-stroke engine cycle as a means of accomplishing these conditions in a piston engine (Fig. 1). The engine requires two revolutions of the crankshaft to complete one combustion cycle. The first engine to use this cycle was built in 1876 by N. A. Otto (see OTTO CYCLE).

Two years later Sir Dugald Clerk developed the two-stroke engine cycle by which a single combustion cycle required only one revolution of the crankshaft. In this cycle exhaust ports in the cylinder were uncovered by the piston at the proper end of its power stroke. A second cylinder then provided a charge of air to the work cylinder through a check valve when the pressure exceeded that in the working cylinder.

In 1901 Joseph Daimler simplified the two-stroke engine cycle by using the crankcase to pump the required air. The compression stroke of the working piston draws the fresh combustible charge through a check valve into the crankcase and the power stroke of the piston compresses this charge. The piston uncovers the exhaust port near the end of the power stroke and slightly later uncovers the intake ports, so that to admit the compressed charge from the crankcase a baffle is installed provided on the piston head to deflect the charge one side of the cylinder. The exhaust port is closed by the piston head and the other side of the exhaust port with a little mixing gas possible.

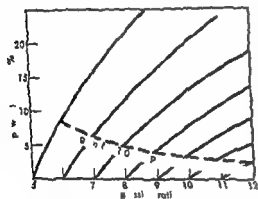
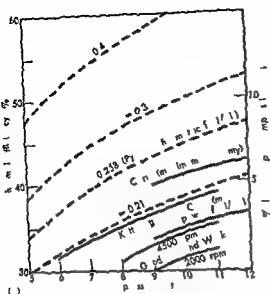


fig 3 ( ) Effect of mpe n to th m l f  
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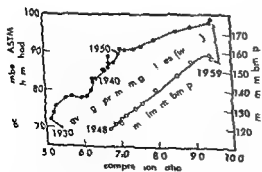


Fig 4 Ye-to-yea f i berw ve g m  
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I at all with lo d pr vided th t the fuel air ratio remain constant and that the ignit on time is ad vanced at reduc d loads this c mpen ates for the slower ate of burning which is its from d lution of th ombu tible th rge with th larger perc nt ages of but ed c r manging in th combu tion

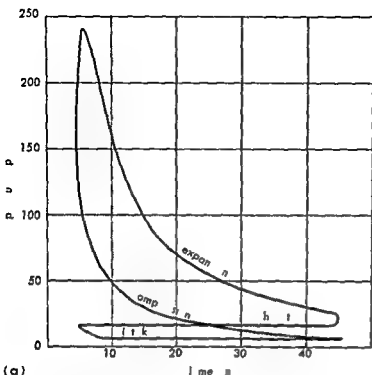
Effect of ignition timing. Designers obtain high thermal efficiency from high compression ratios at part loads where engines normally run at automobile cruising speed with optimum spark advance but velocity knock on a stable gasoline at wide open throttle by use of a reduced or compromise spark advance. The tendency of an engine to knock at wide open throttle is reduced appreciably when the spark advance is reduced. As shown in Figure 5, advancing or retarding the spark timing from optimum results in a constant loss in mep for any nominal engine as shown by the solid curve. The octane requirement falls rapidly as the spark timing is retarded; the actual rate depends on the nature of the gasoline as well as on the design of the combustion chamber. The dotted curves A and B show the effects of a given gasoline of the type of moderate and high turbulence combustion chamber respectively with the same compression ratio. Because the mep curve is relatively flat near optimum spark advance, retardation of the spark for a 1-2° loss can be done normally acceptable in practice because of the appreciable reduction in octane requirement.

In Fig. 6 similar data are shown by curve A for noth engine with map plotted directly against octane requirement as the park tuning was required. Point indicates optimum park tuning where 85 octane was required of the gas line to avoid knock. By raising the compression ratio the power and fuel requirement were also reduced as shown by the dotted curve B. Although optimum spark occurred 95° before (pnt b) retarding the spark timing and thus reducing the tank requirement to 86° (point c) developed slightly more power than with the original compression ratio. In optimum park data the gain may be negligible at wide open throttle but at lower loads where knock is not developed the park tuning may be adjusted to optimum (point b) where approximately 1 p.w.r.m.y.b. developed by the same amount of fuel.

[illegible]

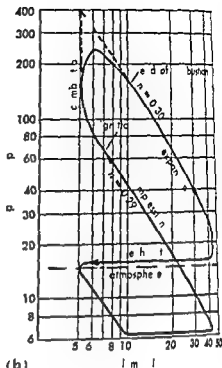
Effect of fuel air ratio (A similar) of engine how the fuel mixture rich or lean than the stoichiometric maximum knock frequency will be at higher engine speeds. However the best fit of the compression ratio or upper limit mixture vary in the mixture ratio.





(a)

Fig 2 (a) Typical pressure volume and color card plotted on rectangular coordinates (b) The same data plotted on logarithmic coordinates



(b)

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{1}{r^n} \quad (1)$$

where the compression ratio  $r$  and expansion ratio  $n$  are the same ( $r = r = r$ ). When theory assumes atmospheric air in the cylinder for extreme simplicity exponent  $n$  is 1.4. Efficiencies calculated on this basis are almost twice as high as measured efficiencies. Logarithmic diagrams from experimental data show that  $n$  is about 1.3. Even with this value efficiencies achieved in practice are less than given by Eq (1). This is not surprising considering the differences found in practice and assumed in theory such as instantaneous combustion, 100% volumetric efficiency and so on.

Attempts to adjust classical theory to practice by use of variable specific heats and consideration of dissociation of the burning gases at high temperatures have shown that this exponent should vary with the fuel/air mixture ratio and to some extent with the compression ratio. G. A. Goodenough and J. B. Baker have shown that for an 8 l compression ratio it should vary from about 1.28 for a stoichiometric (chemically correct) mixture to about 1.31 for a lean mixture. Similar calculations by D. R. Pye showed that at a compression ratio of 5:1  $n$  should be 1.258 for the stoichiometric mixture increasing with excess air (lean mixture) to about 1.3 for a 20% lean mixture and to 1.4 if extrapolated to 100% air. Actual practice gives thermal efficiencies still lower than these which might well be expected because of the assumed instantaneous changes in cyclic pressure (during combustion and exhaust) and the disregard of heat losses to the cylinder walls. These theoretical rela-

tions between compression ratio and thermal efficiency as well as some experimental results are shown in Fig 3. The data published by C. F. Keatinger and D. F. Caris are about 85% and 92% respectively of the theoretical for the corresponding fuel/air mixtures. Figure 3b gives the theoretical percentage gain in indicated thermal efficiency or power from raising the compression of an engine calculated from Eq (1) with  $n = 1.3$ . These gains are less than half as great as those obtained by industry as indicated from the maximum brake mean effective pressure (bmep) values for production cars shown in Fig 4.

Experimental data indicate that a change in compression ratio does not appreciably change the mechanical efficiency nor the volumetric efficiency of an engine. Therefore any increase in thermal efficiency resulting from an increase in compression ratio will be realized by a corresponding increase in torque or mep; this is frequently of more practical importance to the engine designer than the actual efficiency increase which becomes an added bonus.

**Compression ratio and octane rating.** For years compression ratios of automobile engines have been as high as designers considered possible without danger of too much customer annoyance from detonation or knock with the gasoline on the market at the time (Fig 4). Engine designers continue to raise the compression ratios of their engines as rapidly as suitable gasoline comes on the market.

Little theoretical study has been given to the effect of engine load on indicated thermal efficiency. Experimental evidence reveals that it varies little



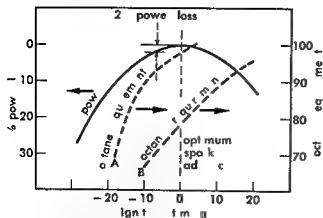


Fig 5 Effects of advancing or retarding ignition timing from optimum on engine power and the resulting octane requirement of the fuel in an experimental engine with a combustion chamber having typical turbulence (A) and a highly turbulent design (B) with the same compression ratio. Retarding the spark 7° for a 2% power loss reduced the octane requirement from 98 to 93 for design A.

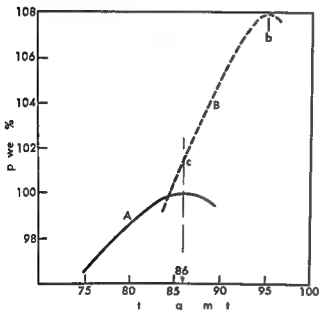


Fig 6 Effect of the compression ratio of a representative engine on the power output and the required mean effective pressure. While a 86 compression ratio was required for optimum spark advance (maximum power) with the original compression ratio, the same result would be known if the higher compression ratio is suitably retarded the ignition timing.

and the sensitivity of the octane value of the particular fuel to temperature that it is not generally practical to make much general use of this method. Nevertheless it has been the practice with piston type aircraft engines to use fuel air mixture ratios of 0.11 or even higher during take off instead of about 0.08 which normally develops maximum mep in the absence of knock.

**Compression ignition engines** About 20 years after N. A. Otto first ran his engine Dr. Rudolf Diesel successfully demonstrated an entirely differ-

ent method of igniting fuel. Air is compressed to a pressure high enough for the adiabatic temperature to reach or exceed the ignition temperature of the fuel. Because this temperature is in the order of 1000 F, compression ratios of 12:1 to 20:1 are used commercially with compression pressures generally over 600 psi. This engine cycle requires the fuel to be injected after compression at a time and rate suitable to control the rate of combustion.

**Conditions for high efficiency** The classical presentation of the diesel engine cycle assumes combustion at constant pressure. Like the Otto cycle, thermal efficiency increases with compression ratio but in addition it varies with the amount of heat added (at the constant pressure) up to the cutoff point where the pressure begins to drop from adiabatic expansion. See DIESEL CYCLE, DIESEL ENGINE.

**Practical attainments** Diesel engines were highly developed in Germany prior to World War I and made an impressive performance in submarines. Large experimental single cylinder engines were built in several European countries with cylinder diameters up to 1 meter. As an example, the two stroke Sulzer S100 single acting engine with a bore of 1 meter and a stroke of 1.1 meters developed 2050 gross horsepower at 150 rpm. Multiple cylinder engines developing 15,000 horsepower are in marine service. Small diesel engines are in wide use also.

**Fuel injection** In early diesel engines air injection of the fuel was used to develop extremely fine atomization and good distribution of the spray. But the need for injection air at pressures in the order of 1500 psi required expensive and bulky multistage air compressors and intercoolers.

A simpler fuel injection method was introduced by James McKechnie in 1910. He atomized the fuel as it entered the cylinder by use of high oil pressure and suitable spray nozzles. After considerable development it became possible to atomize the fuel sufficiently to minimize the smoky exhaust which had been characteristic of the early solid injection engines. By 1930 solid or airless injection had become the generally accepted method of injecting fuel in diesel engines. See FUEL INJECTION.

**Contrast between diesel and Otto engines** There are many characteristics of the diesel engine which are in direct contrast to those of the Otto engine. The higher the compression ratio of a diesel engine, the less the difficulties with ignition time lag. Too great an ignition lag results in a sudden and undesired pressure rise which causes an audible knock. In contrast to an Otto engine, knock in a diesel engine can be reduced by use of a fuel of higher cetane number, which is equivalent to a lower octane number. See CETANE NUMBER, COMBUSTION WAVE MEASUREMENT, OCTANE NUMBER.

The larger the cylinder diameter of a diesel engine, the simpler the development of good combustion. In contrast, the smaller the cylinder diameter of the Otto engine, the less the limitation from detonation of the fuel.



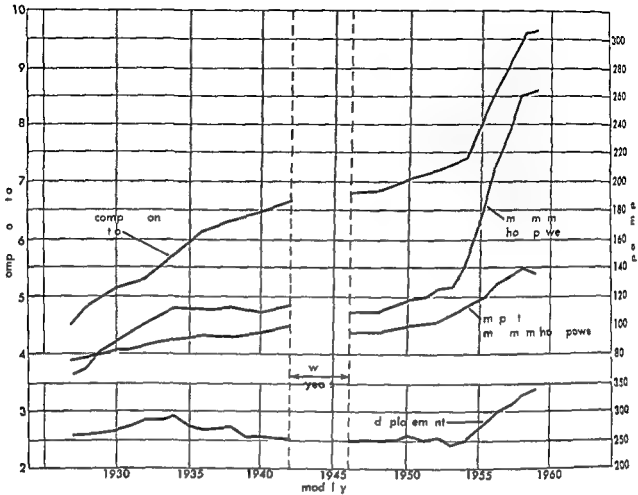


Fig 8 Trend in compression ratio, mean effective pressure and power of average United States automobile engines

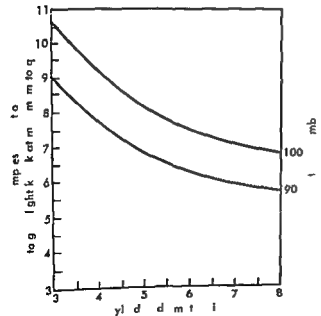


Fig 9 Relation between cylinder diameter and limiting compression ratio for engines of similar design with 90- and 100-octane gasolines

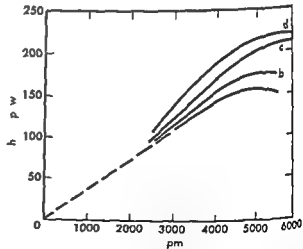
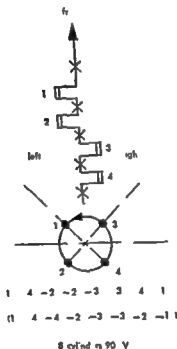
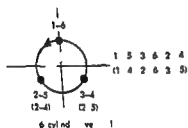
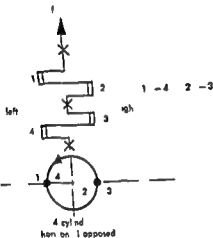
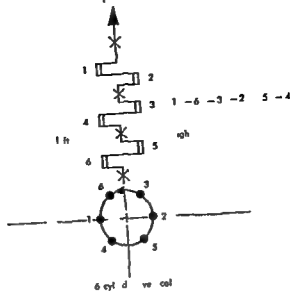
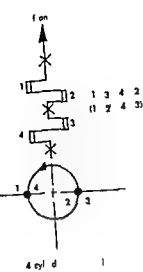


Fig 10 Indicated power for a cylinder of 210 in. diameter by increasing the intake flow through it. Curve 'a' developed by a single valve with two 1 1/2 in. diameter valves. Curves 'b', 'c', and 'd' show the effect of increasing the valve area to 2 in. diameter. The dashed line represents the theoretical power increase with piston speed.



12 Typ l cyl d m g m d fi g d rs

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b t nd h yl der d q l mbe  
f ght gl be d h i typ l t ke

m f l d i g d l carb ret = (Fig 14) With  
the u al fir g o der h wn in Fig 12, the firing  
interval for e ch f the lwer b che (sh wn  
d t t d) ev ly p ed 360 k h ft degrees  
part, b t fo h f the pp b he two cyl  
d f i 180 d then 540 p r t  
I c a g Be g l e ha d ble l t e t  
h t f poizat t l we the a t mpe stu e  
a it evapo t s. Th s tru even at the low t m  
p r t es whe e ly mall part f it; porzed  
H ther f p bl f m t e wh h may be  
c r r d by th a t o f e z und ert c nd i

In the conventional four cylinder in line engines with crankpins in the same plane the primary reciprocating forces of the two inner pistons (2 and 3) cancel those of the two outer pistons (1 and 4) but the secondary forces from all pistons are added. They are thus equivalent to the force resulting from a weight about 4½ times the weight of one piston and its share of the connecting rod oscillating parallel to the piston movement having the same stroke but moving at twice the frequency. A large  $m$  for this type of engine is disadvantageous. Where the four cylinders are arranged alternately on each side of a similar crankshaft and in the same plane both primary and secondary forces are in balance. Six cylinders in line also balance both primary and secondary forces.

Early eight cylinder 90° engines with four crankpins in the same plane like those of the early four cylinder engine had unbalanced horizontal secondary forces acting through the crankshafts which were four times as large as those from one pair of cylinders.

In 1927 Cadillac introduced a crank arrangement for its V-8 engine with the crankpins in two planes 90° apart. Staggering the 1 and 2 crankpins 90° from each other equalizes secondary forces but the forces are in different plane. The couple thus introduced is cancelled by an opposite couple from the pistons operating on crankpins 3 and 4. This arrangement of crankpins is now universally used on V-8 engines.

**Torsion dampers** In addition to vibrational forces from rotating and reciprocating masses vibration may develop in an engine from torsional resonance of the crankshaft at various critical speeds. The longer the shaft for given bearing diameter the lower the speeds at which the vibration may develop. Such vibrations are dampened on most six and eight-cylinder engines by a vibration damper which is similar to a flywheel on the crankshaft at the end opposite to the main flywheel but coupled to the shaft only through rubber or arranged as to reduce the torsional resonances. Such vibration dampers are usually combined with the pulley driving the cooling fan and generator. See MECHANICAL VIBRATION.

Even though the majority of American automobile engines are now dynamically balanced it has been general practice for several years to mount them in the chassis frame on rubber blocks. This reduces the transmission of the small amplitude high frequency vibrations in torque reaction as well as small unbalance of reciprocating parts in individual cylinders so that a low noise level is developed in the car from the operation of the engine.

**Firing order** Cylinder arrangements are generally selected for even firing intervals and torque impulse as well as for balance. As a result the cylinder arrangements and firing order shown in Fig. 12 may be found in automobile engines generally customary to identify cylinder banks as left or right as seen from the driver's seat and to num-

ber the crankpins from front to rear. Manufacturers do not agree on methods of numbering cylinders of V type engines. However the arrangements and firing orders shown are in general in line with the addition in parentheses of alternate arrangements only occasionally used.

**Intake manifolds** Intake manifolds for multi-cylinder engines should meet several requirements for the satisfactory performance of spark plug engines. They should (1) distribute fuel equally to all cylinders at temperatures where unvaporized fuel is present, as when starting a cold engine or during the warm up period; (2) supply sufficient heat to vaporize the liquid fuel from the carburetor as soon after starting as possible; (3) distribute the vaporized fuel air mixture evenly to all cylinders during normal operation and at low speeds; (4) offer minimum restriction to the mixture flow at high power; and (5) provide equal ram or dynamic boost to volumetric efficiency of all cylinders at some desired part of the engine speed range.

Experience shows that the passages between the carburetor and each cylinder should be nearly equal in length with the same number of right angle bends and that no cylinder should be choked with another at the end of a leg of the manifold, particularly if the firing intervals for these cylinders are uneven. Passage length affects the amount of boost in volumetric efficiency or mep and the speed at which it peaks (Fig. 13).

For the warming up period with liquid fuel present rectangular sections are desirable to impede spiraling of liquid fuel along the wall and right angle bends should be sharp at least at their inner corner so as to throw the liquid flowing along the inner wall back into the air stream.

**Manifold heat** Intake manifold of most American automobile engines are heated to the temperature required to vaporize the fuel from the carburetor (120–140°F) by exhaust gas passing through suitable passages in the manifold casting particularly at the first T beyond the carburetor where the liquid fuel impinges before turning to side branches. To speed the warm up process thermally operated valves are generally placed in the engine exhaust system so as to force most of the exhaust gases through the intake manifold heater passage when the engine is cold. After the intake manifold has reached the desired temperature such valves are intended to open and permit only the necessary small portion of exhaust gases to continue passing through the heater. This is an important feature for too much heat causes a loss of engine power and aggravate the tendency for the engine to ward knock andapor lock.

On some engines the intake manifold are heated by water jacket taking hot water from the engine cooling system. This gives uniform heating over the wide range of operating conditions without danger of overheating the manifold resulting from exhaust gas heat if the thermally operated exhaust valve

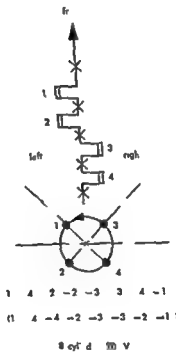
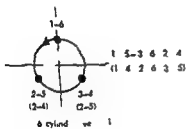
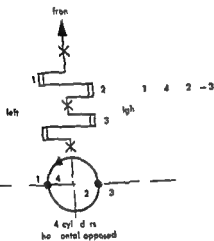
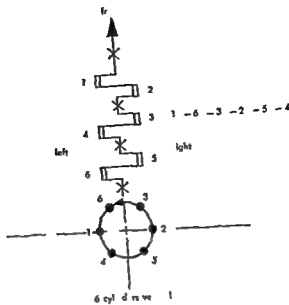
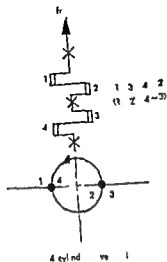


Fig 12 Typ l cyl d rre g m ts d fi g d

f l t re l t h a s h d s d a n t g e h w e v r o f  
m g m i m t r e h n o m a l m f o l d  
t m p e r l t h w a t p p l y f m t h c y l  
d h d h o r t u t e d t h g h t m f l d  
t k t b y t b l w t t h e m a t t d r i n g  
w r m p

O f t h d t g f t h 1-8 e g t h  
l l n t t k m f l d d g n p r m t t e d b y t h  
e n t r l y l o c e d b r t w t h b t m a l l d f f  
e s t h l n g t h s f t h p m b e t w e e t h e  
a b t d h y l d d a n q u l m b e  
l g h t g l b e d s h a t y p e l n a t k e

m n f l d u s g d u l a b u e t r (F g 14) W t h  
t h e u a l f i g d s h o w n F i g 12 t h e f i n g  
i t r v a l s f o e a c h o f t h e l o w b r a h e s (h w  
d t t e d) e e l y p e d 360 c r a k h a f t d e g r e e s  
a p r t h t f o r e h f t h e p p r b a n h a s w c y l i n  
d e f i r e 180 d t h e n 540 p a r t

f c t g B e a u e g l h a m n s d b l l t e t  
H t o f p o t t l w e r s t h e a t m p t  
i t e m t h t h i s t r u e n a t t h l w t r o  
m t u w h e n l y m a l l p a r t f i p z d  
I t i s t h e f e p b l f m i t w h c h m y b e  
c e d b y t h a r t f r e z e u d e r t n c o n d



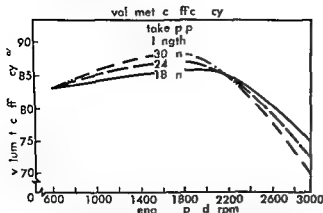


Fig 13 Effect of intake pipe length on the volumetric efficiency of a single cylinder engine at different engine speeds

tions. Ice is most likely to form when the atmosphere is almost saturated with moisture at temperatures slightly above freezing and up to about 40°F. When ice forms around or near the throttle it can seriously interfere with the operation of an engine. For this reason small passages have been provided on some engines for jacket water or exhaust gas from the heating supply for the intake manifold to warm at least the flange of the carburetor. Here again too much heat would produce vapor lock and this would interfere with normal fuel metering.

**Typical American automobile engine** The typical automobile engine as manufactured in the United States during 1959 was an eight-cylinder 90° V with overhead valves such as shown in Fig 15. The cylinder blocks and upper crankcase are cast in one piece. The structure has sufficient rigidity to permit high speeds (4400–5000 rpm at maximum power) without serious deflections. Crankshaft stiffness is aided by a main bearing between each pair of opposing cylinders which have their connecting rods staggered side by side on the same crankpin.

The V arrangement makes possible efficient intake manifold design with symmetrical and almost equal passages to each cylinder from a centrally located down draft carburetor. It is short and low important characteristics for the styling of the

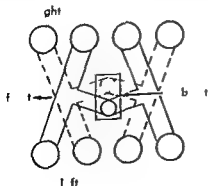


Fig 14 Typical intake manifold with down draft carburetor on a V8 engine

cars in which it is used. It is water cooled under pressure limited to 7–14 psi by a spring loaded radiator cap and it has water jackets completely surrounding each cylinder for the full length of the cylinder barrels. Valves are operated by a single camshaft in the V which is driven by a silent chain. Over 70% of the engines quiet the valve action by hydraulic lifters (see HYDRAULIC VALVE LIFTER). Almost as many engine designs provide means of rotating at least the exhaust valves during engine operation and some rotate the intake valves also. This distributes wear and improves valve life. It is standard practice to provide two narrow compression and one oil scraper ring on each piston above the wrist pin. About half the designs lock the wrist pin in the connecting rod; the remainder leave the pin free to rotate. All compression rings are of cast iron about 0.078 in wide and have wear resisting coatings. Top rings are generally chrome

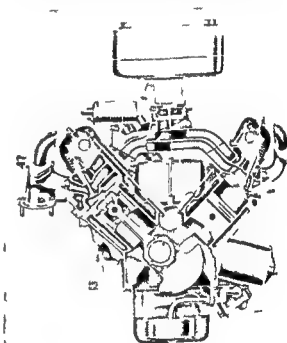


Fig 15 Typical modern V8 automobile engine with overhead valves (Ford Motor Co.)

plated although one manufacturer uses tin plating. Most lower compression rings are tin plated; some have coatings of phosphate or oxide. Oil scraper rings are about 3/16 in wide and made of cast iron or chrome plated steel. The average dimensions of various engine parts are given in the table.

#### FUEL CONSUMPTION AND SUPERCHARGING

Fuel consumption at loads throughout the operating range of an engine provide insight into such characteristics as friction loss within the engine. Volumetric efficiency of an engine can be increased by use of supercharging.

**Part load fuel economy** When the fuel consumption of a spark ignition engine at a given fuel air ratio is plotted against brake horsepower

eng. d. men. ion. (l. inches)  
1959 automobiles

Cyl. d. bore	4.0
Stroke	3.46
Co. ect. g. rod. l. gth	6.41
Rt. f. cra. k. d. t. l. gth	0.69
Co. ect. g. rod. b. g. d. b. e. r. g. d. m. t.	8
Co. ect. g. rod. b. g. d. b. e. r. g. d. m. t.	0.81
Co. ect. g. rod. b. g. d. b. e. r. g. d. m. t.	19
Co. ect. g. rod. b. g. d. b. e. r. g. d. m. t.	0.99
W. r. i. p. d. m. t.	88
M. b. e. r. g. d. m. t.	0.89
M. b. e. r. g. l. gth	34
M. b. e. r. g. l. gth	190
I. t. a. k. l. h. d. d. m. t.	1.56
Ex. h. u. s. t. l. h. d. d. m. t.	

tr. right line my ge. rally be dr. w. th. ough the  
te. p. n. t. s. at. g. n. p. e. e. d. as. h. w. n. n. F. 16  
pr. d. e. d. that. the. test. r. run. w. th. opt. i. m. u. m. p. a. k.  
d. a. c. e. s. s. h. l. e. r. m. i. l. a. to. the. W. i. l. l. n. s. l. i. n. e. s.  
l. g. u. d. f. r. the. s. t. e. m. o. n. u. m. p. t. o. of. t. a. m. e. n.  
g. n. e. s.

For practical purposes the lines at 1000  
speed may be considered parallel. The raw  
data of Fig. 17 for the medium speed engine may be  
converted to the power and speed of the  
reduced speed. The corrected lines  
rad. t. g. f. m. t. h. g. p. e. e. t. c. n. t. r. i. t. o.  
If the uncorrected power developed and the  
corrected specific fuel consumption (f) are  
plotted on the same graph, the lines will be  
th. f. a. t. r. l. a. d. s. m. y. b. e. d. r. c. i. l. y. w. h. e.  
th. y. e. the. p. r. f. o. r. m. a. n. c. e. l. i. n. e. s. at. the. a. r. o. u. n. d.  
p. e. d.

Similar plots of even greater utility may be  
drawn for the medium speed engine. The  
data of Fig. 17 for the medium speed engine may be  
converted to the power and speed of the  
reduced speed. The corrected lines  
rad. t. g. f. m. t. h. g. p. e. e. t. c. n. t. r. i. t. o.  
If the uncorrected power developed and the  
corrected specific fuel consumption (f) are  
plotted on the same graph, the lines will be  
th. f. a. t. r. l. a. d. s. m. y. b. e. d. r. c. i. l. y. w. h. e.  
th. y. e. the. p. r. f. o. r. m. a. n. c. e. l. i. n. e. s. at. the. a. r. o. u. n. d.  
p. e. d.

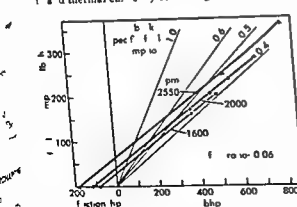


Fig. 16. f. l. m. p. i. o. f. g. l. t. p. r. l. o. a. d.  
p. l. d. t. y. p. i. c. W. i. l. l. g. t. b. k. h. r. e. s. p. o. n. s. e.  
p. o. w. e. r. D. a. w. t. k. w. i. t. h. p. t. m. m. p. k. d.  
d. w. h. f. l. a. t. d. i. t. d. t. h. t. p. t.

Int. n. l. m. b. u. s. t. n. e. n. g. e. 207

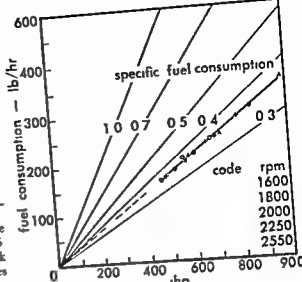


Fig. 17. The d. t. f. f. g. 16. p. l. t. d. o. g. i. t. d. t. d.  
h. p. w. b. y. w. h. h. t. d. f. f. a. f. p. e. d. a.  
t. l. d.

stat. o. e. r. the. l. d. r. a. n. g. e. e. d. Frequently a  
p. e. f. o. r. m. n. c. l. i. n. e. f. o. r. n. e. n. g. e. s. a. l. t. i. t. l. e. to. the  
l. i. f. t. of. the. r. i. g. i. n. b. e. c. a. u. s. e. of. n. d. i. t. o. n. c. a. u. s. i. n. g. a  
d. e. c. a. s. e. i. n. the. r. m. a. l. e. f. f. i. c. i. e. n. c. y. as. the. l. o. a. d. i. s.  
d. e. c. e. d. u. n. t. s. s. u. f. f. i. c. i. e. n. t. t. u. r. b. u. l. e. n. c. e. r. t. o. l. o. w. a  
m. a. n. f. o. l. d. l. i. s. t. y. F. o. r. a. m. o. e. c. o. m. p. l. e. t. e. p. i. c. t. u. r. e. of  
the. f. e. l. c. o. n. s. u. m. p. t. i. o. n. p. e. r. f. o. r. m. a. n. c. e. of. an. e. n. g. i. n. e.  
s. m. a. l. r. p. l. o. t. m. y. b. e. m. a. d. e. n. a. n. m. e. p. b. i. s. W. h. e. n  
th. d. e. s. i. g. n. a. n. d. b. o. t. h. f. u. e. l. c. o. n. s. u. m. p. t. i. o. n. a. n. d. h. o. p. e.  
p. o. w. e. r. a. r. e. d. i. v. i. d. e. d. b. y. the. g. e. n. e. r. a. l. f. a. c. t. o. r. w. h. i. c. h. c. o. n. v. e. r. t. s.  
e. n. g. i. n. e. p. o. w. e. r. to. the. s. h. a. p. e. of. the. p. l. o. t. The. f. u. e. l.  
c. o. n. s. u. m. p. t. i. o. n. c. l. i. n. e. s. b. e. c. o. m. e. q. u. a. l. i. t. y. to. the  
p. o. w. e. r. c. l. i. n. e. s. S. h. o. w. i. n. g. the. p. l. o. t. m. a. y. b. e. on. the  
b. a. s. e. of. the. i. n. d. i. c. a. t. e. d. m. p. (m. e. p.) b. a. s. i. s. (b. m. p.) F. i. g. u. r. e. 17. s. h. o. w. s. the. m. e. d. i. a. n. F. i. g.  
16. d. 17. p. l. o. t. t. e. d. a. n. m. e. p. b. a. s. i. s. f. o. r. t. w. o. d. i. f. f. e. r. e. n. t.  
f. u. e. l. r. a. t. i. o. s.

The f. l. u. m. p. t. i. o. n. p. e. r. f. o. r. m. a. n. c. e. of. d. e. s. i. g. n. s. t. p. a. r. t. l. o. a. d. m. a. y. b. e. s. h. o. w. n. on. a. m. a. r. b. a. s. i. s. b. o. t. h. p. l. o. t. h. o. l. d. n. o. t. b. e. e. x. p. e. c. t. e. d. t. o. b. e. t. h. i. g. h. t. b. e. c. a. u. s. e. of. the. f. u. e. l. r. a. t. i. o. n. a. r. i. e. s. w. i. t. h. l. o. a. d. T. h. e. s. a. l. l. t. r. a. t. e. d. F. i. g. 19. I. t. i. s. c. h. a. r. a. c. t. e. r. i. s. t. i. c. of. m. o. d. e. l. n. g. i. n. e. s. that. the. c. r. v. e. of. the. p. l. o. t. g. e. n. e. r. a. l. l. y. f. l. a. t. t. a. t. l. o. w. l. o. a. d. s. that. i. t. b. e. c. o. m. e. t. m. p. t. g. t. e. t. r. a. p. l. i. t. a. t. i. o. n. z. e. f. u. e. l. c. o. n. s. u. m. p. t. i. o. n. I. f. the. m. a. x. i. m. u. m. e. f. f. i. c. i. e. n. c. y. m. p. = m. w. i. t. h. r. e. d. c. t. f. l. d. i. t. w. o. u. l. d. b. e. t. h. e. o. r. y. f. i. t. h. l. c. a. l. d. e. s. i. g. n. b. e. c. a. u. s. e. f. i. t. h. e. d. u. c. t. e. d. c. u. t. f. i. t. h. i. s. t. e. c. p. t. w. i. l. l. b. e. t. h. e. g. h. t. f. i. t. h. o. r. i. g. i. n. w. h. e. n. p. l. t. d. i. n. a. m. e. p. b. i. s. I. f. p. l. t. t. e. d. = b. m. p. b. i. s. i. t. w. o. l. d. b. e. t. h. e. r. i. g. h. t. f. i. t. h. t. r. u. m. e. a. s. u. r. e. f. r. i. c. t. i. o. n. m. p. I. t. t. h. f. i. n. t. f. i. t. t. i. m. t. h. f. i. c. t. i. o. n. of. a. d. e. s. i. g. n. e. n. g. i. n. e. b. y. the. m. e. t. h. o. d. l. i. n. e. d. t. m. u. r. e. m. e. n. t. s. a. r. e. a. l. a. b. e. d. d. r. g. h. p. p. m. t. n. t. f. a. c. t. o. r. y. A. l. t. h. o. u. g. h. the. e. f. f. i. c. i. e. n. c. y. p. e. r. f. o. r. m. a. n. c. e. p. l. o. t.

considerable utility for recording such data for an engine the fact that they are curved requires at least three or even more points to fix their location on the plot

**Supercharging spark engines** Volumetric efficiency and thus the mep of a four stroke spark ignition engine may be increased over a part or the whole speed range by supplying air to the engine intake at higher than atmospheric pressure. This is usually accomplished by a centrifugal or rotary pump. The indicated power of an engine increases directly with the absolute pressure in the intake manifold. Because fuel consumption increases at the same rate the indicated sfc is generally not altered appreciably by supercharging.

The three principal reasons for supercharging four cycle spark ignition engines are (1) to lessen the tapering off of mep at higher engine speed (2) to prevent loss of power due to diminished atmospheric density as when an airplane (with

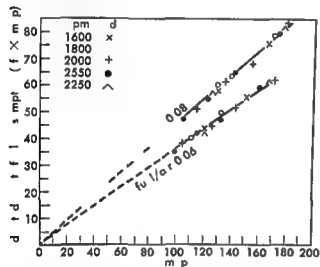


Fig 18 The  $f_i$  consumption data of Fig 17 plotted on the basis of mep by dividing the fuel flow rate by the power scale by the same factor ( $k = \text{ihp}/\text{mep}$ ). A line for 0.08 fuel/air ratio has been added to show the effect of fuel/air ratio on the slope of such plots

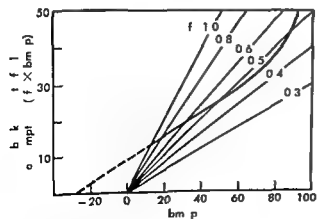


Fig 19 Fuel consumption of a diesel engine at part loads showing the curvature typical of the engine on the e.c.o.d. due to increasing effect of fuel/air ratio as the loads are increased

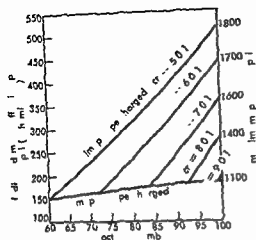
piston engines) climbs to high altitudes and (3) to develop more torque at all speeds. The effect will be discussed in greater detail.

In a normal engine characteristic torque rises as speed increases but falls off at higher speeds because of the throttling effects of such parts of the fuel intake system as valves and carburetors. If a supercharger is installed so as to maintain the volumetric efficiency at the higher speed without increasing it in the middle speed range peak horsepower can be increased with little if any increase in octane requirement.

The rapid fall of atmospheric pressure at increased altitudes causes a corresponding decrease in the power of unsupercharged piston type aircraft engines. For example at 20,000 ft the air density and thus the absolute manifold pressure and indicated torque of an aircraft engine would be only about half as great as at sea level. The useful power developed would be still less because of the friction and other mechanical power losses which are not affected appreciably by volumetric efficiency. By the use of superchargers which are usually of the centrifugal type sea level air density may be maintained in the intake manifold up to considerable altitudes. Some aircraft engines drive these superchargers through gearing which may be changed in flight from about 6.5 to 8.5 times engine speed. The speed change avoids oversupercharging at medium altitudes with corresponding power loss. Supercharged aircraft engines must be throttled at sea level to avoid damage from detonation or excessive overheating caused by the high mep which would otherwise be developed. See SUPERCHARGERS.

Normally an engine is designed with the highest compression ratio allowable without knock from the fuel expected to be used. This is desirable for the highest attainable mep and fuel economy from an atmospheric air supply. Any increase in the volumetric efficiency of such an engine would cause it to knock unless a fuel of higher octane number were used or the compression ratio were lowered. When the compression ratio is lowered the knock limited mep may be raised appreciably by supercharging but at the expense of lowered thermal efficiency. There are engine uses where power is more important than fuel economy and supercharging becomes a solution. The principle involved is illustrated in Fig 20 for a given engine. With no supercharge this engine when using 93 octane fuel developed an imep of 180 psi at the borderline of knock at 8:1 compression ratio. If the compression ratio were lowered to 7:1 the mep could be raised by supercharging along the 7:1 curve to 275 imep before it would be knock limited by the same fuel. With a 5:1 compression ratio it could be raised to 435 imep. Thus the imep could be raised until the cylinder became thermally limited by the temperatures of critical parts particularly of the piston head.

**Supercharged diesel engines** Combustion in a four stroke diesel engine is materially improved by



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the cylinder after the working strokes and to supply the air required for the subsequent cycles. The blowers in contact to supercharge do not build up appreciable pressure in the cylinder at the start of compression. If the capacity of such a blower is great than the engine displacement it will scavange the cylinder practically all exhaust product even to the extent of blowing some air out through the exhaust ports. Such blowers like supercharger may be mechanically driven by the engine or by exhaust turbines.

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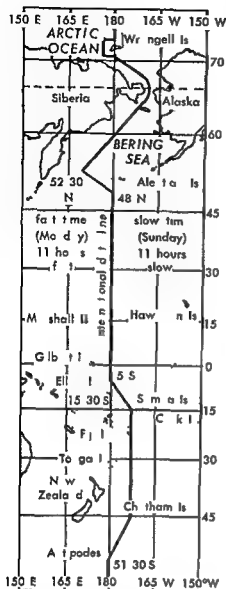
**Internal energy**

A basic thermodynamic property of the state of a thermodynamic system introduced in the first law of thermodynamics. For a static closed system (no bulk motion) the transfer of matter across its boundary is negligible.  $\Delta E$  is the net energy for a process equal to the heat  $Q$  absorbed by the system minus the work done by the system on its surroundings. Only a change in internal energy can be measured in its absolute form. For a given process the change in internal energy is fixed by the initial and final states and is independent of the path by which the change in state is accomplished.

The internal energy in a system is the sum of the energies of the individual molecules of which the system is composed and the contributions from the interactions among them. It does not include kinetic energy from the potential energy of kinetic energy of the system as a whole. It changes must be accounted for explicitly in the statement of a system. Because it is more convenient to use an independent variable (the pressure  $P$ ) for the system instead of its volume, the working equations for a thermodynamic system are usually written in terms of such functions as the enthalpy  $H = E + PV$  instead of the internal energy itself. See ENTHALPY THERMODYNAMICS (CHEMICAL).

### International Date Line

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The International Date Line

Conference in 1884 designated the 180° meridian as the location for the beginning of each day. Thus when a traveler goes west across the line he loses a day; if it is Monday to the east it will be Tuesday immediately as he crosses the International Date Line. In traveling eastward he gains a day; if it is Monday to the west of the line it will be Sunday immediately after he crosses the line.

An interesting example can be taken from conditions now nearly attainable with jet aircraft. If one could board such a plane say at noon in Washington, D.C. and fly westward at that latitude around the world to return in 24 hours the rate would match the rotation of the earth. Although constantly under the noontime sun this traveler would need to adjust his calendar one day ahead upon crossing the International Date Line because he would arrive in Washington at noon 24 hours after embarking. Thus his calendar day would agree with that of the Washingtonians.

The 180° meridian is ideal for serving as the International Date Line. It is exactly halfway around the world from the zero or Greenwich meridian

from which all longitude is reckoned. It also falls almost in the center of the large ocean; consequently there is the least amount of inconvenience as regards population centers. A few deviations in the alignment have been made such as swinging the line east around Siberia to keep that area all in the same day and westward around the Aleutian Islands so that they will be within the same day as the rest of Alaska. Other minor variations for the same purpose have been made near the Fiji Islands in the South Pacific. See GEOGRAPHY MATHEMATICAL. [V.H.]

## Interplanetary propulsion

**Powered flight between planets.** The systems used for interplanetary propulsion must provide the acceleration to propel a flight vehicle and to maneuver it along its trajectory. High acceleration is desirable for near space flights and chemical rockets seem most appropriate. Moderate acceleration is adequate for trips to the inner part of the solar system. Low acceleration during the long times for flights to planets beyond Mars will produce acceptable velocities for such flights. Electrical propulsion systems seem uniquely qualified. In addition to the midcourse propulsion systems the vehicle or its detachable booster may use other propulsion means for launching, landing, and operating in the regions of strong planetary gravitational fields (see ROCKET STAGING).

**Engine types.** Several basic propulsion techniques have been considered for interplanetary propulsion. Two are rockets in the strict sense that they carry and heat their own fuel and expel reaction material (see ROCKET). These are the chemical rocket and the nuclear rocket. The other techniques rely on solar energy or carry their own separate energy source; they are the solar heating rocket, photon propulsor, and electrical propulsor.

**Chemical rocket.** The nature of the propellant, whether solid or liquid, provides the basis for classifying chemical rockets (see PROPELLANT). Both types convert chemical energy into thermal energy of a working fluid by combustion and convert the thermal energy into kinetic energy in a nozzle expelling the working fluid at high velocity to provide forward thrust. See ROCKET ENGINE.

A solid propellant rocket, once ignited, normally burns until all its fuel is consumed. The shutting down and restarting of a liquid propellant rocket is feasible but requires special techniques. A low pressure monopropellant rocket is more easily restarted but develops lower performance (see SPECIFIC IMPULSE). A monopropellant rocket develops a specific impulse of 200–225 sec compared with a theoretical limit of 440 sec for a high energy bipropellant.

**Nuclear propulsion.** Three types of nuclear rocket are under study. In the fission type uranium in a solid reactor heats a working fluid usually hydrogen. The working fluid then accelerates through a nozzle as a jet of rockets.



1000–2000 F (see SOLAR ENGINE) At the Earth's distance from the Sun a reflector area of 8 ft<sup>2</sup>/kw is needed if 100% of the captured radiation is converted to power (see SOLAR CONSTANT) Considering all the losses probable in such a heater from accuracy with which the reflector is pointed at the Sun to efficiency of a solar boiler the reflector area may need to be 80 ft<sup>2</sup>/kw At Mars distance from the Sun the reflector would need to be 200 ft<sup>2</sup>/kw Just how such a reflector for a high power system would be transported into space remains to be determined

**Photon propulsion** The radiation pressure of the photons from the Sun is about 10 lb/ft<sup>2</sup> at the Earth's distance The total pressure due to action and reaction on a perfectly reflecting surface would be twice this value Although force is limited by being directed only away from the Sun solar sailing can provide low thrusts and attitude control turning a space ship completely around in a few hours Because no working fluid is carried in the vehicle this type of propulsion is economical in weight

For the vehicle to carry its own light source a photon rocket of adequate thrust would need state energies far beyond present capabilities Because the photon velocity is the speed of light relativistic effects must be considered Also the need for cooling of mirrors precludes a practical device using present technology

**Performance evaluation** Each space flight requires particular engine performance Thus there is no best engine but there are engines better suited for some missions than for others The table presents data for the principal types of engine Figure 2 shows the relation of acceleration (which is also the thrust weight ratio of the vehicle) to specific impulse (or exhaust velocity) and to specific power (which is here the ratio of kinetic energy in the jet per unit time to the overall weight of the vehicle including its source of energy)

Chemical and nuclear rockets provide high thrust for short duration The other engines operate for long durations at low thrust For short trip rapid acceleration is desirable for long trip low acceleration

Ranges of specific impulse thrust to weight ratio and duration

System	Specific impulse lbf/lb	Thrust to weight ratio	Type of engine
Chemical	100–150	10 <sup>-2</sup> –10	Military (light) Military (heavy)
Radioisotope	100–1000	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Small
Isotopic	100–1000	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Small
Alkali metal	100–1000	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Small
Alkali metal	5000–10000	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Small
Alkali metal	5000–10000	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Small
Solar thermal	100–700	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Small

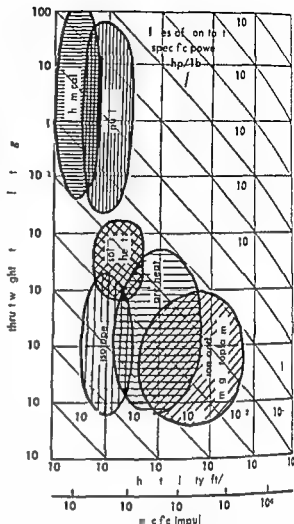


Fig 2 Regions of acceleration and specific power for various rocket engines of the Aero/Space Corporation

acceleration may produce usable over all flight time For such service a interplanetary freight the high specific impulse  $\mu$  of the electrical units would allow a vehicle so powered to carry a heavier payload than if driven by a chemical rocket

**Trajectory requirements** The even less interplanetary maneuvers are presented in Fig 3 together with the engines suitable for each The interplanetary flight really starts from a satellite orbit beyond the greater part of the Earth's atmosphere. It is assumed that the energy necessary to lift a vehicle off the ground and to put it into a satellite orbit is provided by a separate rocket motor vehicle. To minimize the energy necessary to overcome the relatively strong gravitational field the thrust must be applied during a brief period. Chemical and nuclear rockets are therefore the only suitable engines for this maneuver. Interplanetary propulsion need supply only the energy to accelerate from orbital velocity and for the other interplanetary maneuvers.

Interplanetary orbit transfer is the next maneuver. Basically it is the overcoming of the gravitational field of the Sun and the correcting for differences in tangential velocity of the launching

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The last proposal on requirement is similar to the first but applied in reverse. The vehicle descends from its solar transfer orbit to a satellite orbit about the target planet. This maneuver requires relatively high acceleration to overcome a high gravitational field although not so high as is required for a land maneuver because the vehicle may make a parabolic free-fall through the target planet (greater than 0.5) the approach to the target planet is essentially the same as the thrust application. It will may be that the initial capture orbit will be based on the period with which the maneuver is to be carried out determines to some extent the required thrust.

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For the first category of mission, the hemispheric system is adequate but a clarification is being sought for too much to be useful. Possibly nuclear or some limited cases, solar heating engines could also be used for mission that are firm near

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1000–2000 F (see SOLAR ENGINE) At the Earth's distance from the Sun a reflector area of 8 ft/kw is needed if 100% of the captured radiation is converted to power (see SOLAR CONSTANT) Considering all the losses probable in such a heater from accuracy with which the reflector is pointed at the Sun to efficiency of a solar boiler the reflector area may need to be 80 ft<sup>2</sup>/kw At Mars distance from the Sun the reflector would need to be 200 ft<sup>2</sup>/kw Just how such a reflector for a high power system would be transported into space remains to be determined

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Range of specific impulse thrust to weight ratio and duration

System	Specific impulse	Thrust to weight ratio	Typical duration
Chemical	100–400	10 <sup>-2</sup> –10	Minutes to hours
Fusion	500–1000	10 <sup>-2</sup> –10	Seconds to minutes
Ion propulsion	100–700	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Days
Electrostatic	100–1000	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Days
Magnetoplasmadynamic	5000–10000	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Weeks
Thermal nuclear	5000–60000	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Months
Solar thermal	400–700	10 <sup>-3</sup> –10	Days

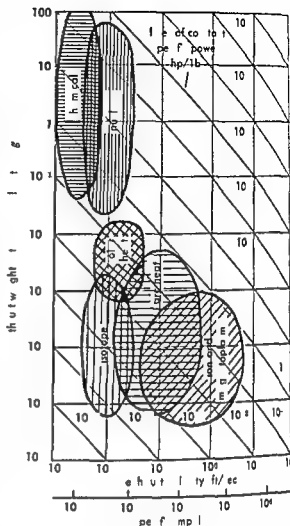


Fig 2 Regions of accelerations and specific power for various rockets (Jural & the Aero/Space Sciences)

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Interplanetary orbit transfer is the next maneuver Basically it is the overcoming of the gravitational field of the Sun and the correcting for differences in tangential velocities of the launching



for later portions of the trip. Even so, having at least two stages—one for high and one for low thrust—seems favorable for interplanetary and orbit transfer maneuvers.

**Environment** During any of these missions the engine with the vehicle is exposed to unusual environmental conditions. Prolonged exposure to high vacuum precludes use of materials that evaporate. For example, some soldered joints contain materials that will slowly evaporate in space.

Over most of the interplanetary trajectory gravitational acceleration will be very small. Positioning switches and other components are the necessary gravity cannot provide a return force. Similarly a liquid and its vapor will be difficult to separate. In space electromagnetic radiation and corpuscular impacts may alter the properties of the materials used in the engine and in the vehicle.

The overall vehicle should maintain thermal equilibrium. Ambient temperature can be con-

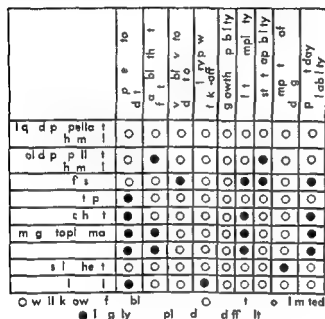


Fig. 4 Comparison of technical features of propulsion systems (for range of the Aero/Space Sciences)

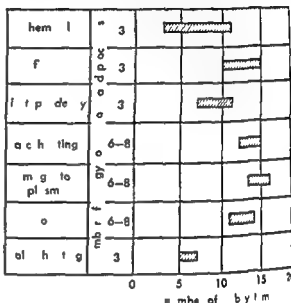


Fig 5. Relative complexity of various propulsion systems (Urnal of the Aero/Space Sciences)

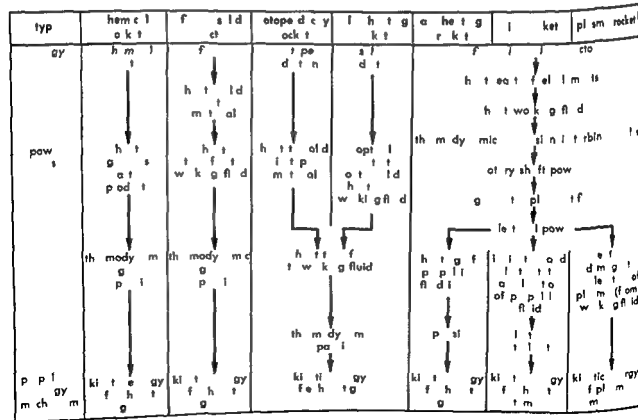


Fig. 6. Energy cankers in various rocks. (U.S. J. of the Atmos. Space Sci.)

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l b l t th t e e d th e f m u ch q u r m t  
w s e d Ea th T a e a s o n b l e n s  
e t l f l g h t m y n e c t t u ch x t e  
e r u d t u p n d e m l a t e d r t n t  
m k e s f l g h t t e r g m d r b l e d  
h a p D p l t ( r d d e t ) y t m w ll b  
u e d f l l l t A l m e r f l b l e n g r s  
th p e s w ll b l r d Th f h g n e  
h e l b l t f 0 9 9 ( 1 f l 1 0 0 t )  
l t r l z e g 5 f a d a p w ll  
f l n l y o 9 3 0 o p e a t o O n l y t l c h m

	h	h	h	h	h	h
	h	h	h	h	h	h
l q d propell t	0	0	0	0	0	0
solid p pell t	0	0	0	0	0	0
monopr pella t	0	0	0	0	0	0
f ion	0	0	0	0	0	0
f io	0	0	0	0	0	0
radiao i	0	0	0	0	0	0
isotope det y	0	0	0	0	0	0
hea g	0	0	0	0	0	0
mag plo ma	0	0	0	0	0	0
ion	0	0	0	0	0	0
sol h t p	0	0	0	0	0	0
sol f	0	0	0	0	0	0

0 ompl d l bl

d w y

0 ucompl hed or l bl

Fig 7 De elopm t t t of va lo ock t g l a  
( U l f th A /Spa Scie )

cal rocket has been dev l ped a f f e c t i v e l y s o t h a t  
the r l h l t y is h i g h e n o g h f r u h c l u t e r s g  
t b e f f t i For the next few y r t t w ll b t e  
n l v a s l a b l e m g n e f o i n t e r p e t a r y f l i g h t  
Work o t h e r g i e t y p e h s b e e n i t i t e d  
( Fig 7 )

Th e g n e s t h t d r v e t h g r e t e s t e f f r t a r e  
th t w i n g t h e g r e a t t p r m e b o t h i n e f f i c i e n t  
o f t h e r e e r g y s o c e a n d i n e f f i c i e n t r

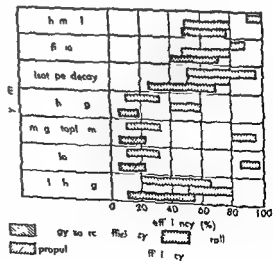


Fig 8 R l t f f c f p w  
d f f e t p p l y t m U l f th A e /  
Sp S )

sion of energy to high thrust as summarized in Fig 8 The chemical and nuclear engines are the only ones with a high acceleration capability If an efficient lightweight electric generator could be found the electric systems with their versatility would be highly attractive and accelerations higher than 0.00001  $g$  could be attained See **SATELLITE ARTIFICIAL SPACE STATION SPACE TECHNOLOGY** see also **SPACE FLIGHT SPACE VEHICLE SPACE CRAFT STRUCTURE** [GPS]

**Bibliography** M Alperin and H F Gregory (eds) *Vistas in Astronautics* vol 2 1959 M Alperin and G P Sutton (eds) *Advanced Propulsion Systems* 1959 *Astronautics* vol 4 no 10 1959 J Q Brantley Jr and D R Rhodes (eds) *IRE Trans MIL 3* 1959 G P Sutton *Rocket propulsion systems for interplanetary flight J Aero/Space Sci* 26(10) 609-625 1959

## Interpolation

A process in mathematics used to estimate an intermediate value of one (dependent) variable which is a function of a second (independent) variable when values of the dependent variable corresponding to several discrete values of the independent variable are known An example may illustrate the process

Suppose as is often the case that it is desired to describe graphically the results of an experiment in which some quantity  $Q$  is measured for example the electrical resistance of a wire for each of a set of  $N$  values of a second variable  $v$  representing perhaps the temperature of the wire Let the numbers  $Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_N$  be the measurements made of  $Q$  and the numbers  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N$  be those of the variable  $v$  These numbers representing the raw data from the experiment are usually given in the form of a table with each  $Q$  listed opposite the corresponding  $x$  The problem of interpolation is to use the above discrete data to predict the value of  $Q$  corresponding to any value of  $v$  lying between the above  $x$  If the value of  $v$  is permitted to lie outside these  $x$  the somewhat more risky process of extrapolation is used See **EXTRAPOLATION**

**Graphical interpolation** The above experimental data may be expressed in graphical forms by plotting a point on a sheet of paper for each pair of values  $(x_i, Q_i)$  of the variables One establishes suitable scales by letting one inch represent a given number of units of  $v$  and of  $Q$  If  $v$  is considered to be the independent variable one usually lets the horizontal displacement of the  $i$ th point represent  $x_i$  and its vertical displacement represent  $Q_i$

If for simplicity it is assumed that the experimental errors in the data can be neglected then the problem of interpolation becomes that of drawing a curve through the  $N$  data points  $P_i$  having coordinates  $(x_i, y_i)$  that are proportional to the numbers  $x_i$  and  $Q_i$  respectively so as to give an accurate prediction of the value  $Q$  for all intermediate values of  $x$  Since it is at once clear that the  $N$  measurements made would be consistent with

any curve passing through the point  $one$  additional assumptions are necessary in order to justify drawing any particular curve through the points Usually one assumes that the points are close enough together that a smooth curve with a simple variation as possible should be drawn through the points

In practice the numbers  $x$  and  $Q$  will contain some experimental error and therefore one should not require that the curve pass exactly through the points The greater the experimental uncertainty the farther one can expect the true curve to deviate from the individual points In some cases one uses the points only to suggest the type of simple curve to be drawn and then adjusts this type of curve to pass as near the individual points as possible This may be done by choosing a function that contains a few arbitrary parameters that may be so adjusted as to make the plot of the function miss the points as little as possible For a more complete discussion of this topic see **CURVE FITTING** For many purposes however one uses a French curve and orients it so that one of its edges passes very near a group of the points Having drawn in this portion of the curve the edge of the French curve is moved so as to approximate the next group of points An attempt is made to join up these portions of the curve in such a way that there is no discontinuity of slope or curvature at any point

**Tabular interpolation** This includes methods for finding from a table the values of the dependent variable for intermediate values of the independent variable Its purpose is the same as graphical interpolation but one seeks a formula for calculating the value of the dependent variable rather than relying on a measurement of the ordinate of a curve

For the purposes of this discussion it will be assumed that  $x_i$  and  $y_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$ ) representing tabulated values of the independent and dependent variables respectively are accurate to the full number of figures given Interpolation then involves finding an interpolating function  $P(x)$  satisfying the requirement that to the number of figures given the plot of Eq (1) pass through a set

$$y = P(x) \quad (1)$$

selected number of points of the set having coordinates  $(x, y)$  The interpolating function  $P(x)$  should be of such a form that it is made to pass readily through the selected point and is easily calculated for any intermediate value of  $x$  Since many schemes are known for determining quickly the unique  $n$ th degree polynomial that satisfies Eq (1) at any  $n+1$  of the tabulated values and since the value of such a polynomial may be computed using only  $n$  multiplications and  $n$  additions plus nominal are the most convenient form of interpolating function

If the subscripts on  $x$  and  $y$  are redefined so that the point through which Eq (1) passes are now  $(x_0, y_0)$  the polynomial

In ded: Eq (1) may be written down by in  
it and o has

$$y = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{L_k(x)}{L(x)} y_k \quad (2)$$

re

$$L_k(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)(x-x_1)\dots(x-x_{k-1})(x-x_{k+1})\dots(x-x_n)}{(x-x_k)}$$

Lagrange's interpolation formula for u  
ally paired rd nat s. Since  $L(x)$  vanishes for  
x in the  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  except  $x$  sub  
ing  $x = x_k$  the right hand side of Eq (1) gives  
et ly o e o e o r m. The term has the  
u y r o i e d.  
For  $n=1$  Eqs (2) and (3) give the  
u n

$$y = \frac{x-x_1}{x-x_0} y_0 + \frac{x-x_0}{x-x_1} y_1 \quad (3)$$

is a straight line connecting the points  
( $x_0, y_0$ ) and ( $x_1, y_1$ ). Such an interpolation is re-  
ferred to as linear interpolation and in all  
me try d e on of int pol i n h weier  
other q i i n t form of the eq at on g r a b e  
Eq (12) is m r e f i n u e d in these a e  
c p p o e i t h l w o b t a i n e d f m t h e q  
n y = f(x) a n h f(x) i s o m e m a t h m a t c l  
i h i g c o n t i n u o u s f u n c t i o n s o f a l l o r d e r  
p t a n d m u l t i p l y i n g b y (x-x<sub>1</sub>), then po i  
l t b t n a n o r a t e x p a n s i o n i n t e r m e d  
t e l u f f(x) b y a d d i n g t h e r i g h t h a n d s i d e  
f Eq (2) so a l l d m i d i r m

$$\frac{(x-x_1)\dots(x-x_n)}{(x-x_0)} f(x) \quad (4)$$

h e f(x) i s t h e (x-x<sub>1</sub>) t h d e r i v e f  
f(x) a t m p t = x<sub>0</sub> i s g i v e n b y t h e m a l l  
e r a d i g e s t t h l e x p a n s i o n x<sub>0</sub> S  
t h a l m f(x) i s n o t k n o w n t h e r e m a i n s t e r m  
u d m r y l t s e t a n u p p e r l i m i t o n t h t r u c t i o n  
o f o d e d b y i s g L a g g a t e p o l i t i o n  
f o r m

If the data is a eq lly pced th t s  
= + h w h r h i s t e r v l o f i b u l t i n  
L a g g e s i n t e r p o l a t i n f o r m u l t i p l i e s  
d a b l y a n d m a y b w r n

$$y = \sum_{k=0}^n A_k(y) = A_0(y) + A_1(y) + \dots + A_n(y) \quad (6)$$

wh the degree of the polynomial is  
th t w i s t h g h t h + 1 p o i n t  
( $x_0, y_0$ ) ( $x_1, y_1$ ) H n s t h l r g e s t  
i n t e g r l s t h n o r q a l t / 2 d t h e A ( )  
A ( ) e p o l y n o m i a l t h a r b l  
=  $\frac{x-x_1}{x-x_0}$  (7)

The latter polynomials have been tabulated a  
l u i f u

**Inverse interpolation** If the value of y is known  
and the value of the corresponding independent  
variable x is desired, the problem of in-  
verse interpolation. Since the polynomial A(u)  
in Eq (6) are known functions of u and the values  
of y and y<sub>k</sub> are also known, the only unknown in the  
equation is u. Thus the problem reduces to that of  
finding a root of an nth-degree polynomial  
in the range 0 < u < 1. (For details on numerical  
methods for solving for such a root and for re-  
forming the interpolation formula. Numerical  
Analysis) Having found u, we may find x  
from Eq (7).

One may also perform an inverse interpolation  
by treating x as a function of y. Since however  
the interval between the y values is not necessarily  
equal, it is simpler to employ the general interpolation  
formula of Eq (1) with the x and y interchanged.

**Round-off errors** In the calculated values, round-  
off errors, resulting from the necessity to express the  
entire y of the table as a finite decimal will cause  
an additional error in the interpolated value of y  
that must be added to the truncation error dis-  
cussed before. The effect of these errors on the  
application of Lagrange interpolation formula is  
shown by Eq (6) to be a total error in y given by

$$\epsilon_r = \sum A_k(u) \epsilon_k \quad (8)$$

Letting  $\epsilon_k$  be the maximum possible error in  
the coefficient  $y_k$  for all k, we have from Eq  
(8) that

$$|\epsilon_r| \leq \sum |A_k(u)| |\epsilon_k| \leq \sum |A_k(u)| \quad (9)$$

Since the sum of the  $A_k(u)$  is equal to 1, the  
error

$$\sum |A_k(u)|$$

in Eq (9) is usually not much larger than 2 or 3  
ad that the interpolated value of y has about the  
same round-off error as the dual entries.

**Use of finite differences** For some purposes it  
is more convenient to use an interpolation formula  
based not on the values of y but on the central  
finite differences as upon their differences.

$x_0$	$y_0$				
$x_1$	$y_1$	$\delta y_0$			
$x_2$	$y_2$	$\delta y_{-1}$	$\delta^2 y_0$		
$x_3$	$y_3$	$\delta y_{-2}$	$\delta^2 y_{-1}$	$\delta^3 y_0$	
$x_4$	$y_4$	$\delta y_{-3}$	$\delta^2 y_{-2}$	$\delta^3 y_{-1}$	$\delta^4 y_0$
$x_5$	$y_5$	$\delta y_{-4}$	$\delta^2 y_{-3}$	$\delta^3 y_{-2}$	$\delta^4 y_{-1}$
$x_6$	$y_6$	$\delta y_{-5}$	$\delta^2 y_{-4}$	$\delta^3 y_{-3}$	$\delta^4 y_{-2}$

Each difference  $\delta y$  is obtained by subtracting  
the quantity immediately before and the left of

sion of energy to high thrust as summarized in Fig 8 The chemical and nuclear engines are the only ones with a high acceleration capability If an efficient lightweight electric generator could be found the electric systems with their versatility would be highly attractive and accelerations higher than  $0.00001 g$  could be attained See SATELLITE ARTIFICIAL SPACE STATION SPACE TECHNOLOGY see also SPACE FLIGHT SPACE VEHICLE SPACE CRAFT STRUCTURE [CPS]

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If the ultimate  $x$  and  $y$  are realigned so that the point through which Eq (1) passes are now  $(x_0, y_0)$   $(x_1, y_1)$   $(x_2, y_2)$   $(x_3, y_3)$  the polynomial

Let  $f(x)$  be a function of  $x$  which is tabulated at some interval  $\Delta x = h$ . They are admirably adapted to numerical computations. For this reason, many numerical solutions of differential equations in one or more variables are obtained by approximating the equation by a suitable difference equation.

For ordinary differential equations, the transformation to a difference equation can be made by replacing the derivative in the equation by the appropriate difference expression according to the interval.

$$f'(x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{h} \delta f(x) \\ 2^{2n} (x) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2^{2n+1}} \left[ \delta^{2n+1} f\left(x + \frac{h}{2}\right) + \delta^{2n+1} f\left(x - \frac{h}{2}\right) \right] \quad (15)$$

where  $f(x)$  designates the function of  $x$ . The difference equation resulting can then be used before being used to express the relation between the values of  $f(x)$  at the discrete points  $x = x_0 + sh$ ,  $s = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

**Partial difference equations.** Suppose one wishes to specify a function of two variables  $f(x, y)$  by giving the value of  $f$  at regular intervals in the  $xy$  plane having coordinates  $(x_m, y_n)$ . Then,  $f(x, y) = f(x_m, y_n)$  is a partial difference equation.

$$\sum A_{ij} f(x_m + jh, y_n + ih) = g(x_m, y_n) \quad (16)$$

where  $f(x, y)$  is a known function of  $x$  and  $y$ , and  $A_{ij}$  are the coefficients of the difference equation. The function  $f(x, y)$  is called a partial difference equation.

If the coefficients  $A_{ij}$  are all equal to 1, the equation is called a simple difference equation.

$$x_m = a + mh \\ y_n = b + nh \quad (17)$$

The Laplace transform of the difference equation is approximated by the following equation:

$$f + f' + f'' + \dots + f^{(n)} - \delta f = 0 \quad (18)$$

where  $f$  is the function of  $x$  and  $y$ , and  $\delta$  is the difference operator.

$$f = f(x, y) \quad (19)$$

**CHARPIT'S METHOD. LATTICE (MATHEMATICS)**

See *Phys. Rev. Ser. 2*, 1954, 97, 1761. *J. Log. Anal.* 1954, 1, 194.

## Interstellar matter

Material between the stars. Interstellar matter is known in many ways. It is known from its absorption of light, from its emission of radio waves, and from its effect on the motion of stars.

bright patches of nebular material. The light from the patches exhibits emission line spectra characteristic of a gas at low density. Other clouds are bright because they reflect the light of a nearby star or stars and hence must be made of small solid particles. The clouds and the illuminating star have similar spectra. Frequently stars have a redder color than is predicted by their spectral characteristics, the result of intervening material not unlike small dust particles which reddens any light passing through. Distant stars often exhibit absorption lines in their spectra which are produced by interstellar gas. Finally the light of many stars is polarized and the correlation between the degree of polarization and the distance of the star suggests that a material of crystalline form exists in interstellar space.

Nearly all interstellar material in our galaxy is located in the spiral arms. Radio observations have detected hydrogen gas in the nucleus of the galaxy but no obscuring matter has been observed. In other galaxies the characteristic emission spectrum of interstellar gas is frequently seen, particularly in the spiral galaxies. Spiral galaxies seen edge-on always show a conspicuous band of absorption material silhouetted against the bright nucleus and spiral arms. **SEE GALAXY. EXTERNAL GALAXY. TIL.**

**Bright gaseous nebulae.** Only in the neighborhood of a star hot enough and bright enough to excite the gas to luminescence can there be a bright emission nebula (see **NEBULA. CASES**). The star itself may be the source of the gas; the case in planetary nebulae and the shell around a variable star (see **CRAB NEBULA**). The Orion nebula is the best known diffuse gaseous nebula (see **O 104 NEBULA**). The electron densities determined for gaseous nebulae are of the order of  $10^4$  to  $10^6$  electrons/cm<sup>3</sup> and the kinetic temperatures are about 10,000 K. The composition is a small fraction of hydrogen atoms and 90% helium. The number of atoms is about  $10^{47}$  to  $10^{48}$ .

Although ordinary gases need large quantities of energy to excite a definite cloud of interstellar gas, the excitation of a part of the gas with a high frequency of light can be detected by spectral emission. The gas is ionized by the hot bright star. Because the frequency of the light is high and the density is low, the gas is called an H II region. The density may be as low as 1 atom/cm<sup>3</sup> and the radius of the region of ionized hydrogen may extend to 10 parsecs (326 light years). H I (neutral hydrogen) regions have been detected by observing the hydrogen emission line of 21-cm wavelength with radio telescopes. Here again the density is about 1 atom/cm<sup>3</sup> and the temperature must be typical of the space in the region of ordinary astronomical bodies. **SEE SUN.**

**Reflection nebulae.** Frequently bright diffuse nebulae are observed appearing dark in the spectra. Such nebulae contain small solid particles or grains which reflect the light from the nearby star.



it from the quantity immediately below and to the left thus

$$\delta^k y = \delta^{k-1} y_{+1/2} - \delta^{k-1} y_{-1/2} \quad (10)$$

where  $k$  and  $2s$  are required to be integers. For example

$$\delta y_{1/2} = y_1 - y_0 \quad \text{and} \quad \delta^2 y_0 = \delta y_{1/2} - \delta y_{-1/2}$$

An interesting property of a difference table is that if  $y$  the dependent variable tabulated is a polynomial of the  $n$ th degree in  $x$  its  $k$ th difference column will represent a polynomial of degree  $n - k$ . In particular its  $n$ th differences will all be equal and all higher differences will be zero. For example consider a table of cubes and the difference table formed from it by the rule given above

$x$	$y = x^3$
0	0
1	1
2	8
3	27
4	64
5	125
6	216

Most functions  $f(x)$  when tabulated at a small enough interval  $\Delta x = h$  behave approximately as polynomials and therefore give rise to a difference table in which some order of difference is nearly constant. Consider for example the difference table of  $\log x$  in which the third differences fluctuate between 7 and 9 times 10

$x$	$y = \log_e x$	$\delta y$	$\delta^2 y$	$\delta^3 y$
1.00	0.0000 000			
1.01	0.0043 214	43 214		
1.02	0.0086 002	42 788	-126	
1.03	0.0128 372	42 300	-418	9
1.04	0.0170 333	41 961	-409	
1.05	0.0211 893	41 560	-401	7
1.06	0.0253 059	41 166	-391	

Experimental data if taken at small enough interval of the independent variable would be expected to exhibit much the same behavior as a mathematical function except for the presence of experimental error. The presence of the latter will cause the differences to have a more or less random fluctuation. The size of the fluctuation may in fact

be used to indicate the number of significant figures in the data.

The constancy of the third differences for  $\log x$  indicates that for the accuracy and the interval used a third degree polynomial may be employed as an interpolating function. Since such a polynomial is determined by the choice of four coefficients one would expect the interpolation formula to involve four numbers derivable from the difference table. Thus the forward interpolation formula of Gauss

$$y = y_0 + u \delta y_{1/2} + \frac{1}{2} u(u-1) \delta^2 y_0 + \frac{1}{3!} u(u^2-1) \delta^3 y_{1/2} + \frac{1}{4!} u(u^2-1)(u-2) \delta^4 y_0 + \frac{1}{5!} u(u^2-1)(u^2-4) \delta^5 y_{1/2} + \dots \quad (11)$$

If terminated after the fourth term it represents a third degree polynomial in  $u = (x - x_0)/h$  and hence in  $x$ . It involves the four constants  $y_0$ ,  $\delta y_{1/2}$ ,  $\delta^2 y_0$ , and  $\delta^3 y_{1/2}$ . Since any one of the entries in the  $y$  column may be chosen as  $y_0$ , the differences required are picked from a central difference table for example in relation to this entry. The interpolating polynomial obtained passes through the four points  $(x_1, y_1)$ ,  $(x_0, y_0)$ ,  $(x_1, y_1)$ , and  $(x_2, y_2)$ . In general the interpolating polynomial will pass through only those points whose  $y$  coordinate is needed to form the differences used in the formula.

If one terminates the series in Eq. (11) after the second term one obtains the formula

$$y = y_0 + u \delta y_{1/2} = y_0 + u(y_1 - y_0) \quad (12)$$

This is the linear interpolation formula most often used when making a simple interpolation in a table.

There are a great variety of interpolation formulas. Gregory, Newton's, Stirling's, and Bessel's that differ mainly in the choice of differences used to specify the interpolating polynomial.

**Difference equations.** Repeated application of Eq. (10) may be used to express any difference in terms of the tabulated values, thus for example

$$\delta y_{1/2} = y_1 - y_0 \\ \delta^2 y_0 = y_1 - 2y_0 + y_{-1}$$

Expressed in a more general form these become

$$\delta f(x) = f\left(x + \frac{h}{2}\right) - f\left(x - \frac{h}{2}\right) \\ \delta^2 f(x) = f(x+h) - 2f(x) + f(x-h)$$

If one sets the second difference equal to zero one obtains a so-called difference equation for  $f(x)$ . In general a difference equation is any equation relating the values of  $f(x)$  at discrete values of  $x$ .

Difference equations play much the same role in analytical work as differential equations, and they may be interpreted in terms of



group of stars. Studies of these particles in reflection nebulae suggest that they have high reflectivities and are nonmetallic. Probably they are ice crystals or compounds made up of the lighter elements. The nebulae always appear slightly bluer in color than the illuminating stars, indicating that the particle diameters are in the vicinity of  $10^{-6}$  cm.

Light scattered by small particles is usually polarized, and photographs of reflection nebulae taken through polarizing materials show that the polarization can be as high as 35%. Also the effects of radiation pressure can frequently be seen particularly when there are highly luminous stars in the vicinity of the nebula (Fig. 1).

Frequently bright diffuse nebulae such as the Orion nebula are composed of both gas and particles as is evidenced by their spectra which contain both emission and absorption features.

**Dark nebulae.** When silhouetted against a rich star field or a bright nebula, a cloud of solid particles becomes apparent by absorbing or scattering away radiation directed towards the observer. Many dark nebulae are to be seen in the Milky Way regions of the sky where the light from distant stars is dimmed, reddened and often polarized. The distance to a dark nebula can be found approximately by determining the distance to the most

distant unreddened (or unpolarized) stars, which must of course lie between the Earth and the nebula. Also if it is assumed that statistically all stars are of the same intrinsic brightness, a distance can be estimated. Here counts of stars per unit of angular area in the sky within a small range of apparent magnitude or brightness are made and compared with neighboring areas of the sky. The dimming effect of the nebula will cause a sudden decrease in the density of stars fainter than a critical apparent brightness which corresponds statistically to a certain distance.

One of the best known and nearest dark nebulae is the Coal Sack, which is about 120 parsecs (400 light years) away. The Gulf of Mexico area of the North American nebula is about ten times farther away. See COAL SACK.

While particle clouds which obscure stars must be reasonably large to be detected, dark nebulae seen against bright nebulae can be observed in all sizes. Perhaps the best known example of this type of obscuring cloud is the Horsehead nebula, which is located between us and an emission nebula (see NEBULA). Numerous small dense clouds have been photographed with large telescopes. Such objects called globules are often as small as 1000 astronomical units ( $10^3$  km) in diameter (Fig. 2).

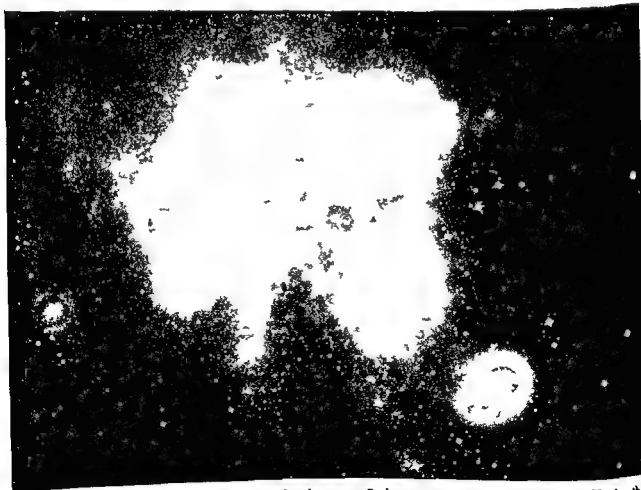


Fig. 1. Reflection nebula silhouetted with the Pleiades star cluster. The cloud with blue tints is composed of small solid particles about  $1 \mu$  in diameter.

The photograph was taken at the University of Michigan with the Curtis-Schmidt telescope.



Fig 2 Port of th R Ho bl NGC 2237  
h w s m t u f i t e s t l i o g d g s. The  
d t m s s from sh b g h t r s i the low  
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g w o y d t i t h s o m t m b t g H  
g l b i P h i g p h d d l i g h t w i t h 48-n  
S h m d t l e m f i t h M u s P l m O b r v t r y

D k b l e m y a b s b a y h e f o m o n l y  
f w p e t f t h e l i g h t s u e f r m n y d i s  
t u l d e p o j t e d a g i t h M l k y W a y  
t e t l l y a l l t h l i g h t m u t c r i s t h e  
d k e s t g l b l e s t h u g h w h h s t e n n o l i g h t n  
b e e T h e l i g h t i s a m i t t e d b y t h e d e n s e  
n b u l e l e t l b a b e d m k i g n p b l e  
t t m n l i r e g d g t h n a t u  
t h p a t l n t h b u l a e T h a b o p t n r  
e s m h l y t h s p e l f t h w e l n g t h f  
t h l i g h t d f o m t d e s o f t h e b p t n p r p  
t f m a l l p r t c l L G H n y s a d j L  
C i f o d l i s h b h a g e s t h t  
e t h c y i l a g n g b o t l p n d i m t e  
m i l l p r t l b i l o m n d m t e r a  
p o d u s g t h a b p t D e f i t h x p e t e d  
l a g p p o t o f i h l l e m e n t s i g i  
p e t m e b l i l e v e t h a t d k n b  
f o m p d s e c t a l

Interstellar gas O t h g s t h n t h a t w h c h  
t n i t h l n b u l h a b n d i t d t h r g h  
c b p t l h h a n b e r v e d i t h  
p e e t f d t a t t r l t e t e l l a l n e n b  
d t g u h e d f m t h e s t e l l r t m p h r c l b y  
t h i t m r w n d b e a t h y d n t  
h b t h a m D p p l h f t t h t a T h e  
t n g t l e c p r o d u d g a l l y b v m e t l  
h a l i m f b h t h e u t a l a n g l y  
n z d t p l s o m n d i n a f w m l u l  
f a l u h a b e e b e r v d u h b n n d  
h y d m o h d i t g e T h e b r p t n  
t n f i t h l i g h t n d i l y m b d a t

at m n t a l l y h y d r g n a r e n t l e r v e d b e c a u  
a l l x c i t i o n o c c u r f r m t h e g r o u n d s t a t e a n d  
n o l i n f r m a t c h t r a t i o n a p p e a r i n a c c e l e r a t i o n  
r e g i o n o f t h e s p e c t r u m

T h e r d a t a m d n s t y i n t e l l r p a s e x  
t r e m e l y l w l w e r t h e m e g y d i t r i t i n c o r  
r p n d a p p r o x i m a t e l y t o t h a t f a l l s b l f v a t  
10000 h a h s l e e n d s m i n u t e l y t h e a m u n t  
o f i n z a t i o n T h i t m p e r a t u r e a n d t h e r e l a t i  
l n e s t r e n g t h s l a d t a n e r a g e d n s t y o f i n t r  
s t e l l a r g s i o u r r e g i o n f p a c e f a l w t l a t m/  
c m s B e c a u e t h g a s j a r g l y h y d r o g n i l l v a l u e  
c o r e p o n d s t o a b o u t  $10^{-10}$  g / m

B e c a u e m a n y i n t r i l l r l i n e s h a v e e s t a l  
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k n w n t h a t i n t e l l a r m s t n d t o a c c u m u l a t e  
i n d i s c r e t u d a h m i n g w i t h i t o w n p r  
a s t e c l o c k t p e e O f t e t h e v e l o c i t i e s c r  
r e p o n d t o t h e s p i r a l a r m i n w h i c h t h e  
c l o u d a r e l o c a t e d T h i s m a k e s i t p o s s i b l e t o e  
t h c l o u d t o o u t l i n e t h e l a p e o f a p o r t i o n o f t h e  
g a l a x y

T h e l e m h y d r g n l i n e s f r e q u e n t l y s e e i n  
a b r p t w h n l d f n e u t r a l h y d r o g n a p p a r  
p a r i n f r a t f i t n g i s f r d e m i t n  
i n t e r s t e l l a r p a r t i c l e s I n m a n y w a y s t h e d i f f e r  
b u t i n f t h e t e l l a r p a r t i c l e s r e m a i n t h e  
o f t h e g a s A l t h g t i t r e a d e c i d e d t e n d e y  
f r t h e s p a r t i c l e s a u m u l s t i n c l o u d t h e y  
e v e r t h e s p e r m e a t e a l l i n t e r t e l l a r p a r t i c l e  
w i t h i n t h e s p i r a l a r m f r g a l a x y A l l d a n t a n t  
t a a p p e a r r e d d e n e d b y t h m a t r i a l a n d a r  
d i m m e d c o r r e p o n d i n g l y T h e i n t r i l l r h a s p a r t  
t a s f d a r k n b l r i e s a p p r o x i m a t e l y a  
t h e r e p r a l f t h e w a v e l n g t h o f t h e l i g h t T l  
d e g r e e f r e d d n n g f t a r l i g h t a n b e e s t i m a t e d  
f l a c c u r a t e l y b y c o m p a r i n g t h e l e r v e d c l r  
w i t h t h a t p e d e d f m t h e s p e c t r u m f i l t a r  
H w e v e r t h i s i s n o t s o a s y t o d e t e r m i n e t h e t i l l  
b p t i a t a g e n w a v e l g t h T h e f e m u l  
e f f t h a b e e n x p e d e d t r y i n g t f i d t h e r u  
f i o t l e s e l e c t e b a o r p t i n T h e b e s t e s t i m a t e  
g g e t t h a t w h a c r a g m o r r e g i o n f t h e  
g a l a x y a p p r o x i m a t e l y  $50^{\circ}$  f t h e l i g h t o f a t r a t  
a d i a n f 1000 p a r s (3260 l i g h t y e a r s ) i s a b  
b e d l i t h e g r o d g t h i s a b r p t n a r e  
c e c y t a l s l n d a m e t t h e d e n s i t y f t h e i  
t e a t l l r p r i l e m u t h e i t h e i c n t v f 30  
p r t u l / k m  $10^{-10}$  g m a l u w h h  
a b u t n e h u d r e d t h a t f i t r t e l l a g s

B e a u e f t h e h i g h c e n t r a t i o n f i t e t e l l r  
m a t r i a l t o w a d t h p l a n e o f t h e g a l a x y t h e a r  
a g l f a b o p t i o n p a r t d s t a n c e r a p i d l y  
d e r e a s e m r e d i n t a s a c b r v e d i n d i  
r t o r i g h t a g l e s i t h e g a l a t c p l n e C o n  
e s e l y n e t e m l y d i f f i c u l t t o d e t e c t d i s t o n  
w i t h w e l n g t h l t h n l p e m i n g f o m l a r g e  
d m e n d r e c t i o n s i t h e g a l a t c p l n e  
T h z o n f v o d a c e w h i h r p o n d u g h l y  
t h e a e a c u p e d b y t h M i l k y W a y i t h t r e  
g i t h s k y w h h e n t a l l y n e t a g a l a c  
t o b j e c t n b e b e c a u f t h e t r e v n g  
t t l l a m a r i



# Intestine

The tubular portion of the digestive tract between the stomach and the anus. In man it consists of the small and large intestines. The former is further divided into the duodenum, the jejunum and the ileum. The duodenum 10-12 in long begins at the pyloric sphincter of the stomach and curves around the head of the pancreas. The right descending colon of the upper abdomen. It receives the duct of the biliary system and the pancreatic. The jejunum and ileum are about 19 ft long and form a muscular tube that empties into the large bowel through the ileocecal junction.

The large bowel or colon consists of five parts: the ascending, the transverse, the descending and sigmoid, and the terminal rectum which empties into the anal canal.

All parts of the intestine are supported by mesenteries forming extensions which contain an extensive system of arteries, veins, lymphatics, and nerves to the surrounding organs.

The muscular structure of the intestine consists of an inner glandular muscularis consisting of the circular muscle and the outer longitudinal muscle which is subdivided into three parts.

The intestine with the region below include mainly digestive absorption of food and excretion of waste and of digestive juices. See DIGESTION SYSTEM. [L.S.]

## Intestine disorders of

Disorders of the intestine include congenital defects, intestinal obstruction, intestinal dyspepsia, intestinal colic, intestinal hemorrhage, intestinal fistula, intestinal cancer, etc.

The most common intestinal diseases are the following: intestinal obstruction, intestinal colic, intestinal hemorrhage, intestinal fistula, intestinal cancer, etc.

Intestinal obstruction is a condition in which the normal passage of food and waste through the intestine is blocked. It may be caused by a variety of factors, including adhesions, hernias, tumors, and strictures.

Common intestinal disorders include: intestinal obstruction, intestinal colic, intestinal hemorrhage, intestinal fistula, intestinal cancer, etc. The most common intestinal disorders are the following: intestinal obstruction, intestinal colic, intestinal hemorrhage, intestinal fistula, intestinal cancer, etc.

The most common intestinal disorders are the following: intestinal obstruction, intestinal colic, intestinal hemorrhage, intestinal fistula, intestinal cancer, etc. The most common intestinal disorders are the following: intestinal obstruction, intestinal colic, intestinal hemorrhage, intestinal fistula, intestinal cancer, etc.

symptoms. The second is an inborn defect of pancreatic secretion that causes steatorrhea. Other symptoms include salty and sweet gland abnormalities and a thymic Whipple's disease is a rare disease of middle age in which large fatty deposits accumulate in the intestinal walls and in the mesenteries.

Inflammations include non-specific and specific diseases (see ILEITIS, PERITIC ULCER). Tuberculosis, typhoid fever, amebiasis, cholera and bacillary dysentery, specific infections, diseases produced by invasion of microorganisms may produce intestinal lesions. Various chemicals and poison may also produce inflammation of the small intestine (enteritis) or of the large bowel (colitis). Ulcerative colitis is a disease of unknown cause which produces ulcerations of the intestine particularly the colon. See AMEBIASIS, BACILLARY DYSENTERY, CHOLERA, VIBRIO, TUBERCULOSIS, TYPHOID FEVER.

Appendicitis is the most frequent proctocolitis of surgery of the abdomen. It probably arises from a combination of causes, including infection and obstruction of the lumen and so from parasitic infestation. The prompt surgical removal reduces the number and severity of complications. It is a disease of undetermined cause. Appendicitis may be an acute fulminating disease or may persist as a chronic recurrent inflammation with much recurring and final bliteration of the lumen.

Malignant tumors of the small intestine are not common but the large intestine has a high incidence of adenoma which accounts for 15% of all cancer deaths each year in the United States. Other malignancies are lymphoma (Hodgkin's disease), melanoma, leiomyosarcoma, and leukemia infiltration. See ONCOLOGY.

Benign tumors are represented by polyp, lipoma, myoma, and fibroma. Duodenal ulcers occur in the colon, the small intestine rarely being involved.

Disorders of the peritoneum include abdominal distention, may be directly and indirectly valve intestinal. Other causes of constipation that may affect the intestine any systemic disorder may also produce intestinal changes and dysfunction. [E.C.]

## Inulin

A complex polysaccharide in some plants especially those of the family Compositae, where it is found in the root of the tuber of the Dahlia. Jerusalem artichoke is a dandelion. Inulin is only slightly soluble in water but readily dissolves in hot water. It does not give a characteristic reaction with iodine.

—40 (molar) Its molecular weight is approximately 5000 which corresponds to a chain length of about 30 glucose residues. It is hydrolyzed with acid or the enzyme inulinase from Aspergillus niger to D-glucose. The inulin molecule is made up principally of glucose furanose units linked by glycosidic bonds. The hydroxyl groups on carbon 2 of the primary alcohol groups on carbons 1, 3, 6, and 6 of the glucose units are free. POLYSACCHARIDE.

Starlight is not only absorbed by the particles in space but also scattered giving the sky a faint luminous appearance. Such glow is one component of the light of the night sky; other contributors are air glow or permanent aurora and the integrated effect of large numbers of extremely distant and faint stars. See AIR GLOW, AURORA.

**Polarization of starlight.** A. W. Hiltner and J. S. Hall found that most distant stars shine with measurably polarized light; the total percentage polarization is never large, amounting at the most to a little over 7%. Because of a strong correlation between the amount of this polarization and the degree of interstellar reddening, there is no doubt that the interstellar particles produce the polarization. The planes of polarization of stars near the Milky Way have a strong tendency to be parallel to the galactic plane, suggesting that the interstellar particles are crystalline in structure and are oriented by a general galactic magnetic field.

**Origin of interstellar material.** Much interstellar gas has probably remained in the same state since its origin. However, a sizeable fraction of this gas must come from stars through the ejection of material by prominence and flare activity and from the shells of novae and supernovae. The interstellar particles grow through gradual condensation of the atoms and molecules. To grow a crystal  $\mu$  in diameter takes about  $10^4$  years, neglecting the infrequent collisions of the particles. There seems to be little variation in the sizes of interstellar particles from one part of the galaxy to another, indicating the existence of an equilibrium state.

**Formation of stars.** V. A. Ambartsumian first pointed out that superluminous stars of high temperature, which cannot be very old because of the tremendous rate at which mass is converted into energy, are always found in clouds of gas and interstellar particles. Such associations are clear proof that stars must form from this material. Once a reasonably large condensation of interstellar gas and grains forms, it is not difficult to show how a star can evolve. However, the process of how such condensations form is not clear. Perhaps eddies in a weak magnetic field produce them. By blowing away the more tenuous material, radiation pressure would separate the condensations, producing the small dense globules which have estimated masses comparable to those of stars. See STELLAR EVOLUTION. [W.L.]

**Bibliography.** L. H. Aller, *Gaseous Nebulae*, 1956; J. Dufay, *Nebuleuses galactiques et matiere interstellaire*, 1954.

## Interstellar space

The space between the stars and other celestial bodies. For convenience of reference, the space in the immediate vicinity of Earth is termed near space (see SPACE). The intervening region from Earth to the Moon is lunar space; farther from Earth is interplanetary space. Interstellar space is strictly the region beyond the planet. This article deals with both interplanetary and interstellar space.

Nowhere in the universe is space absolutely empty; it is occupied by extremely tenuous matter, generally gas and solid particles from dust to meteors of 0.1–1 cm diameter and large meteoritic debris.

In the solar system, at least 99% of the solid mass filling space occurs in the form of tiny particles of dust having diameters of 0.001–0.1  $\mu$ . The sunlight reflected from this dust cloud is visible as zodiacal light, showing a strong concentration near the plane of Earth's orbit (see ZODIACAL LIGHT). The dust is dark, its reflecting power being about the same as that of soot. Its total density is about 1 g/500,000  $\text{km}^3$ . There appears to be a comparable amount of interplanetary gas, mostly completely ionized hydrogen, at least partly consisting of a continuous stream from the solar corona.

The meteoric and meteoritic component of matter in interplanetary space represents a much smaller mass, about 1 g/10<sup>3</sup>  $\text{km}^3$ . It is more conspicuous because individual meteors and meteoritic falls are observable from Earth.

Comets with nuclei diameters of 0.1–10 km and asteroids (0.1–500 km) form the next step. During millions of years, meteor craters on Earth and on the Moon have been produced by collisions with these bodies. Unlike meteorites, they can be observed individually in space from a distance with the aid of telescopes.

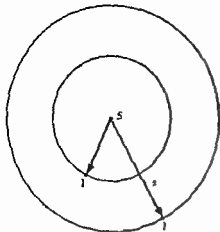
Interstellar space near the plane of the Milky Way is filled with gas, mainly hydrogen, of an average density of 1 g/10<sup>6</sup>  $\text{km}^3$ . Everywhere it is accompanied by dust grains having diameters of 10<sup>-6</sup>–10<sup>-5</sup> cm. The total mass of dust is about 0.8% of the gas and the gas accounts for about 2% of the mass of the Galaxy (see GALAXY). The dust obstructs light but, unlike interplanetary dust, it is white and scatters light without much absorption. Gas and dust appear to be gathered into cosmic clouds, 10–50 light years in diameter and with densities 10–50 times the average density in interstellar space. Interstellar gas is transparent; its temperature depends greatly on the radiation of nearby stars and varies from 10,000°C near hot stars (H II regions) to -170°C (H I regions). The temperature of the dust is everywhere very low, -250 to -170°C.

In the space between galaxies, the density of matter is perhaps a millionth the density in interstellar space.

Interplanetary and interstellar space also contain primary cosmic ray particles, which are atomic nuclei traveling with nearly the velocity of light and contributing a weight of about 5 g/10<sup>3</sup>  $\text{km}^3$ .

Electromagnetic radiation including x-rays, ultraviolet, visible and infrared light and radio waves travels everywhere through space (see RADIO ASTRONOMY). Visible light is emitted by stars; infrared radiation by the dust grains and radio waves chiefly by a sized gas.

[E.J.O.]



f p t      m m n g e g f i t d y f  
h      e q      l w t t s t o t l / l z = z /

lyf part l      es a acuum u t a ra  
t e t m p      ded the ear n lect m g  
t field a d n o m t u l i t a f      Th t r m s  
so ed for tat field la u h a th l w f  
avial n d Co l m b l w n lect t i c s  
[w a s m]

## vertebrata

d : s o f t h a n m l k g d o m w h c h h a n o t a  
m s a t l l d e d u d e r t h t e r m l n e r t e  
t a e l t h e a n m l w h i c h l c p n l c l  
m n b k e      t a t l v r e b r a t W h  
h e x p t n f t h e p h y l m C h d t a l l o t h e  
s h y l a f t h e s b k g d o m V t a z a a w l l a t h  
f t h b k g d m P t z o a M e s o z o a n d P t a  
z o a a n t b t e s S M e s o z o M e t a z o a  
P a r a z o a V e r t e b r a t      [c s c]

## invertebrate embryology

T h u d y f t h e d e l i m e t r m o p h g e s  
a n d g r w i t h f t h e n r e b a t e s T h e a m e g g e l  
p n p l o f d i p m e t p p l y t t h e r t  
b t t h y d t t h r e b t A t u l l y m u h  
f i b e b a k w l e d g f m b r y l g h b e n t h  
e s l i f i d i t h s i b t e s A m m n  
p h m o t h i r e b t s t h l e s o f a  
f e d d p d e f f m t h e l r v a b e f o e d e  
d e l o p m t m p l e t e d T h e l a r v s y c n d s  
b l y d c h t e t s o f t h d f f e n t m l  
g r p s

T h l f t h e a s t m a j t y o f e r t e b t  
m l b g w i t h t h u n f n e g g n d a p  
m t z o n W h i t h e s e p d u c t c e l l s k n w n  
l e c t l y g m t o u l d h a d l y b m u n  
l k e h t h n m o t p e c t s t h y h a t w u n  
p r t f a t e s m m m n t h p e s a f a  
g l a c t f h r m m d t h h r a t i t c f  
b e g i g g e d l l T h p r m t o o t r g r  
e s a f o r m h a g e i t h g r i c e w h c h  
e b l t t p e t a t n d s t i m u l a t e t h g g T h  
l t e i t r g g e d t r p n d t o t h s t m l t a  
b y b g n i g t h e r e s i m p l a t d m o c e s  
w h d w t h e s p e m s o z t t h g g b r g

together the influence of the fertilized egg cell  
could not develop the fertilized egg cell  
to transfer the hereditary material a faithful  
reproduction of the ancestral organism

Aside from these characteristics however  
the egg and sperm are highly dissimilar  
While the nuclei of both undergo the process of  
meiosis which prepares them for eventual union by  
reducing the chromosome number to one-half the  
original number of the parent cell  
their cytoplasm is divided in exactly opposite directions

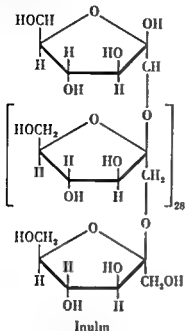
**Spermatogenesis** Number of sperm cells and  
mobility are important for spermatozoa toward  
the end of the process of spermiogenesis  
of a single cell proliferates followed by a period  
of prophase I and metaphase I and anaphase I  
the chromosomes are tightly packed into a tiny nucleus  
The cytoplasm forms the locomotor apparatus usually  
a single flagellum with a centriole at its base  
and a mitochondrion nearby well an  
organ like (sacosome) for penetrating the egg  
cell. Excess cytoplasm is finally discarded  
and the mature spermatozoon (Fig 1) ready to  
take part in fertilization is a self-contained  
tip-down unit carrying the hereditary message  
in code and provided with enough energy  
to propel it into the egg but of a tiny  
on its own way trip to the egg for its species  
Millions upon millions of such cells are produced  
in the testes where they remain quiescent until  
they are pawned See SPERM CELL SPERMATO-  
GENESIS

**Oogenesis** The egg is designed for a very dif-  
ferent role than the sperm in the egg sub-  
stance provide structural material for the formation of a  
multicellular organism and development so  
that the young animal can feed itself and carry on  
its further growth. It must contain enough  
energy yielding material to perform the work of  
dividing the single egg cell into body cells from  
which the organism is formed and in synthesis  
the complex chemical substances needed to provide  
each of the new cells with a new nucleus

**Oogenesis** Oogenesis  
The egg is specialized for large size  
and production of its contents with less energy  
numbers and a small amount of motility. In addition  
the cytoplasm possesses an enormous capacity for  
fertilization and development. The egg is  
the specialized cell in the ovary and in chromo-  
somes. The spider egg always produces a spider and  
never a fly. The fact that the physical basis of these  
capacities is so far eluded most of the effort  
devoted to the development in any way can be  
demonstrated by the existence of

The reproductive building and energy yield of the  
male is a different thing. The egg cytoplasm is more  
plentiful and the yolk is a lipid material  
but the egg is a single cell without the  
inert material. At the end of the development of the  
egg with the pro-





Hydrolysis of inulin with inulase or baker's yeast invertase produces about 15% glucose. It is not certain whether this glucose is an integral part of the inulin molecule or whether it is a constituent of an associated substance which is hydrolyzed at approximately the same rate as inulin. [WZB]

## Inventory management

Companies often invest some working capital in materials used in carrying on the business. The quantity and location of these materials control the annual total of the expenses and losses for carrying inventory, ordering material and running out of stock, collectively called inventory expense. Inventory management is the work of minimizing annual inventory expenses, which usually maximizes the return on the inventory investment.

One phase of inventory management is to minimize the quantity of material needed to conduct business. This is done by standardization to reduce the number of different items that must be kept in stock, by choice of plant locations, by coordinating the number of products and models in the line, and by extending the use of interchangeable parts and materials.

Another step is to minimize the period that each item is kept in stock by scheduling and by choice of delivery lot quantity based on lengths of production cycles and forecasts of demand.

Effective inventory management requires records of expenses, costs, and losses that come from carrying inventory, arise from ordering stock, and result from running out of stock. From such records, one estimates the effects of changing delivery lot quantities, lengths of reserve cycles, and quantities of reserve stock. Reserve cycle is the interval between the scheduled or expected dates of delivery and use. Reserve stock is material that is on hand because a reserve cycle is allowed in scheduling the delivery of material. Delivery ratio is the percentage of deliveries made on or before the day the material is required.

Changes are planned by finding what the expenses were for one set of delivery lot quantities and lengths of reserve cycle, and estimating what the expenses will be for other conditions. Care must be taken to see that the data used in the calculations represent expenses that actually will change. For example, space costs are a part of the cost of carrying inventory, but a change in the amount of material kept in stock may not change the space costs.

The delivery lot quantities and quantities of reserve stock can be calculated by examining the effects of changes in the quantities on costs and profits. The delivery lot quantities usually are economical when the related costs per year for carrying inventory equal the ordering costs per year plus the average costs of stockouts per delivery. The amount of reserve stock usually is economical when the cost per year of saving one stockout per 100 deliveries equals the value that will be paid for this benefit. The practicality of the figures obtained from these computations should be reviewed by someone familiar with purchasing and manufacturing problems. The feasibility of planning deliveries analytically (see LINEAR PROGRAMMING) depends on the accuracy of the available data including plant needs and vendor performance.

Inventory management also includes in tallying and operating a material control system which ensures that material is usually where it is required when it is required. Material control includes developing a signal that material should be ordered to meet known or expected requirements, ordering material, notifying expediteurs of the need to expedite delivery, and performing related tasks. These tasks include setting up and posting perpetual inventory records, compiling records of quantities used, where used, prices, sources, kind, and quantities of material used to make the item associated items, and similar information. Material control personnel also gather store processes and distribute inventory management data. Effective performance of inventory management aids a company in improving its competitive position. See INDUSTRIAL CONTROL. [LJS]

## Inverse square law

Any law in which a physical quantity varies with distance from a source inversely as the square of that distance. When energy is being radiated by a point source, such a law holds, provided the space between source and receiver is filled with a non-dissipative homogeneous isotropic unbounded medium (see POINT SOURCE). All undisturbed waves become spherical at distances  $r$  which are large compared with source dimension, so that the angular intensity distribution on the expanding wave surface, whose area is proportional to  $r^2$ , is fixed. Hence the intensity  $I$  is  $I = P / 4\pi r^2$ , a fixed law.

Similar reasoning shows that the same law applies to mechanical shear waves in elastic media and to electromagnetic sound waves. It holds statistically



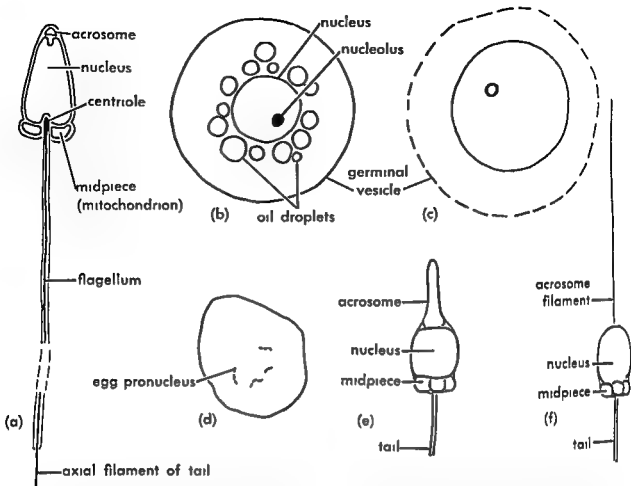


Fig 1 Spermatozoa and fertilizable eggs (a) Sea urchin spermatozoon (b) *Nereis* egg (marine annelid) with intact germinal vesicle containing a nucleolus Spheres surrounding germinal vesicle are oil droplets (c) *Mytilus* egg (marine mussel) germinal vesicle broken

down but polar bodies not formed (d) Mature egg of *Arbacia* (sea urchin) containing egg pronucleus. (e) *Mytilus* spermatozoa (mussel) acrosome intact (f) *Mytilus* spermatozoa acrosome reaction

when they have accumulated the full amount of yolk they are huge in comparison with the body cells of the parent animal. No invertebrate eggs however achieve the spectacular dimensions of bird eggs. The largest are found among the arthropods (crayfish eggs are 2.5 mm in diameter) while some marine animals have very small eggs (oyster eggs are about  $65 \mu$ ).

During the growth period while the egg cell is actively synthesizing yolk and increasing the amount of cytoplasm it has a very large nucleus the germinal vesicle (Fig 1b). When it reaches full size however and this synthetic activity subsides the nuclear membrane breaks down releasing its contents into the cytoplasm (Fig 1d). The two successive nuclear divisions of meiosis follow but the cytoplasm instead of dividing equally pushes out one of the daughter nuclei each time as a polar body. These two minute bodies have no further function in development. The chromosome material left in the egg forms the egg pronucleus (Fig 1c) which is ready to unite with the sperm pronucleus. The zygote nucleus formed by their union is comparable in size to those of the body cells.

**Polarity of the egg** Many types of eggs show structural departures from radial symmetry which

indicate that the unfertilized egg is organized around a bipolar axis, one end of which is called the animal pole and the other the vegetal pole. The polar bodies are given off from the animal pole and the egg pronucleus remains in this region. When an egg contains conspicuous amounts of yolk it is usually concentrated in the vegetal half of the egg.

**Egg membranes** Since the eggs of invertebrates are often shed directly into the water of oceans and streams or laid to develop in places where they are exposed to the drying action of air and sunlight, they are always surrounded by a protective covering. In some forms the eggs are laid in batches which may be enclosed in a leathery sac or embedded in a mass of jelly. In other cases each egg has its own separate membranous case, a layer of jelly or a more complex system of protective structures.

If the young animal is to begin its development under exposed conditions as do many invertebrates, the egg is provided with a tough covering (chorion) which is impenetrable even to its sperm. In some cases there is a minute hole (micropyle) in the chorion near the animal pole through which the fertilizing spermatozoon can enter. Among echinoderms the delicate vitelline membrane of the un-

Extending in all directions and this point the  
 av soon re ch th c ll rface (Fig 3d) P b-  
 ably a th re ult f th pu l e d here by the r  
 c nnu ng lon at n th nter of the a ter con  
 n n n the p r m p nucleu m e s l w l t w d  
 the cente f the egg At the ame t me the egg  
 pr ucleu beg n t m e (Fig 3 ) t w d the  
 nte of the p r m a r that t ward the p r m  
 p nucle s wh h a n w bl a a lear phe c  
 at ll m hat maller than the egg pr u l  
 Ten min t s at m t a fte p e m e n t e th two  
 pr nucle l e m e t a t (Fig 3f) urr ned by  
 th t y f th p r m ter These co tinue to el n  
 g t c r y n g th appoe d p r o n c l t th cent r  
 f t t a d t e d t the m mbrane on all ide s

The un n of th tw pr n cle ( y n g m s ) m a k  
 th e mplet f th f r i z a t n p e e The  
 tu i form the zygote nu l u with th full e m  
 plement of br m s o m e s and th d r m a n t e g ell  
 h s b e a r o u s d to t n m t i o n the e r e of  
 h n e s w h w i l l p d u a n w e a r h i n

A n u m b r f the e n t s w h h a j u t b e e n  
 d s e b e d r p u l t u c h W i t h d i f f e r  
 t u m l e d l e s n d a l l o w a c e f o r t h u n d i d u f  
 h a t e t a o f h p s h w e r t h e s e b  
 p r e s f p e r m i t y t e r f m o s t n a n d  
 n g m y m a k p t h c o m p l x p h e n o m e o n f i t h  
 t u z a t i o n u n n r i n a l l a n m l S  
 t a n t i z a t i o n

S h a d e r p u e p r e x t i n g g t m y  
 j e s t o n b o u t w h a t t u a l l y n g o n n t e r m  
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 a f t o m a e s a n e n m e l k u b t n i l o  
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 f u l d a w g t p r m t z o o n m d the g g  
 r t p l a m h a y t t b p o e d

Th a t o f the p e c i f i c i t y w h c h e n r s t h a t  
 g g w i l l b e a n t r d o f y b y p m t a f t h  
 w n p e s h l f t h b j e c t f g r t  
 f f e e a r h d h a l l t r e d t h o  
 u g h t f a t o r y p l a t o n T h m e c h a n i s m  
 b y w h h g g t h t h r e c i d p r m t o o n  
 o n e j e c t s l l t y r s a n t h p b l e m  
 t h t r e s t o l i n b t p s h a p m d f i c h t  
 d c e t h a n t h n w t a f t h e q e t i n a  
 r t h e o n i g t h c y t o p l a m d i f f e n e s  
 b e t w n f e r i z d d t e r i z d g

Cleavage Th f r i a l e d g o z y g t e t  
 a b o t a t e t d i d t h h u g e m s o f the g g  
 i t m a n y m l l l y n r d r t o r t e t h a l  
 r a t b t t h m t o f l e r a n d y o m o  
 p l m b y a n T h n e g y f t h e s e p a t e d  
 m t e s m e s f m t h y o l k h h l f r n h e s  
 t l p r t o f the m t l q e d f o s t h e s  
 n o l n w c l t r a c t u e s D u i g t h a l g

per od wh h comm nly occur dur ng th fir t 12  
 h r s f e r f e r t i l i z a t i o n the f l a t m r e s a t h e  
 c l e a g e t g c l l a r c a l l e d d i d e m o r e c l e a  
 v n h r o u h G e n e r a l l y c l e a g e f l l w o n e o l  
 e r a l p a t t e r n w h c h c l a r a c t e r i t l r l a r g  
 g r u p f a n i m a l a n d s t e n c r r l a t e d w i t h the  
 s m u t a n d m d e d i t r i n n o t h y l k

W h a t e v e r c l e v a g e s t e r n s f l l w e d the p l a n e  
 o f the f i r t c l e a v a g e p a t t e r i s the a n m l p l e  
 W h e n the e g e t a l t g m n t a n a l a r g p r p o r  
 t n f y l k l e a g e i r e t a r d e d i n t h a r e a a n d  
 the b l a t m e r e s t e n d t o b e l g g r t h a n i n t h a n i  
 m a l p o l e r g n

S m l l g g w h h e r n a n l t l e y l k d i s t e r m  
 p l e t i c a l l y a n d u a l l y e r y r e g u l a r f m i n g a m o  
 o f e l l t h a t h w p r s l f m l k F i g 4 a b )  
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 e v c l a s i c t o w h a t a p p a r s t o b e r a n d m m e s  
 f e l l ( F i g 4 )

T h e r y l e g g o f s q u e d n t a i n a g r a t d e a l  
 o f y o l k c o n c e n t r a t e d a t t h v g t a l p o l T h l a v  
 a g e f u r o w d o n t e l l t h e w a y t h r g h t h i  
 p r t b u t r e s t r i t t h e c t t y t o t h l i n g c y t o  
 p l a m a t the a n i m a l p o l

I n e r t e g g a l s o c o n t a i n a l a r g e t o r e o f y l k  
 w h c h o c c p e t h e c t r f t h e l g a t e e l l a s a d  
 i r r n e d b y t h n l a y e r o f l i n g c y t o p l m  
 o m a n g t h e g g p r n c l e u F o l l o w i n g i t i l z a  
 t n t h l e t a l n e d i d e a n d m e a p a r t i n the  
 l a y e r f c y t o p l a m a f t e a h d i s n s o t h a t t h e y  
 d i t r i b u t e t h e m e l m l l a u d i t h g g A f t e r n i n  
 u c h n u c l e a d i v n a h a e t a k e p l c e ( p o d u n g  
 5 l 7 n u l e l the c y t o p l a m l a c l a e s t h e n a t  
 d v i c f r m n g a n g l e l a y r c m p o s e d o f b o u t  
 1 0 0 0 c l l a u r o d n g t h e n t r a l y l k m s

Blastula stage A m n g a l l t h e s e r i b a t e f m  
 x c p t the n e t the r e s u l t f i x a t i o n e s s  
 l a g c y c l i t h f e m a t i o n o f a p h e ( b l a s  
 t u l a ) c m p o e d o f m a l l c e l l s w h c h l e n i n g l  
 o r p c t l a y r a r n d a n t l c v i t y ( l l a t o c o e l )  
 I f t h e g g h a s c o n t a n e d s l a t e l y l t l e  
 y l k the b l a t o c o e l i r a t h e r l a r g ( F i g 4 f )  
 w h i l e i m a y b e r v m l l e t h e g g i n c l u d e s m u h  
 y o l k ( F i g 4 g ) a n d l i t l e m o r e t h a n l u n t h e  
 y u d b l a t l ( F i g 4 h )

Gastrula stage T h e d o f t h b r i e f b l t u l a  
 s t a g e o c c u r w h e n t h e p r e s o f g a t t a t i o n b e  
 g i n a t m p l e c t f r m t h i c n s t n a n d  
 d n t n g ( i v a g n a t i o n ) o f t h b l a t u l a w l l n t h  
 e g t a l g n ( F i g 5 a ) M e a w h l l d i s i n  
 s g g o n t d i l y a d i n c e t h l a r v h s a s y e t  
 n o w a y f a k n g i n f d f o o d f m t h u t i d e  
 a l l t h f r m c h a e s w h h d r i n g t h s p r o d  
 a r m p h e d w i t h the m i a l o r g i l l y p e  
 a t n t h e f i l e d g g T h e o n l y a d d i t i o n s w t r  
 ( b l s t o r l f l u d ) a d h d a s f e d s u l t a n  
 m l y l t s f o t h a n t e n t s n t  
 t h g i t h l l m e m b r a e s A t h e b l t m  
 b e c o m m a l l e d t h e b l a t u l a w a l l p o d  
 s g l y t h i l l a p o d e d t e t d t h i g e t  
 i n d t a t n n t a p k e t ( F i g 5 b ) W i t h the  
 a p p r a f t h t r u t m ( p a n u d e s t e e  
 t r a t ) the l r a b e c m e s t w o l a y e d s

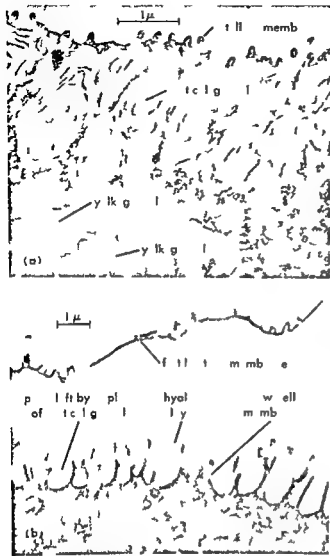


Fig 2 (a) Electron micrograph of surface of fertilized sea urchin egg (Hemichordata) (b) Electron micrograph of fertilized sea urchin egg surface

has entered a small bulge of hyaline cytoplasm the fertilization cone is formed and the sperm tail gradually disappears into the cytoplasm through the cone (Fig 3c).

The separated membrane continues to expand for a minute or two. During this period the substance released from the cortical granules and dissolved in the fluid immediately surrounding the egg unites with calcium from the seawater and forms a compound which accumulates on the inner surface of the lifted membrane. This is now called the fertilization membrane and the added material strengthens it so remarkably that it is able to resist dissolving action of all kinds except that exerted by a particular enzyme which the seawater in larval stage secretes when it is ready to hatch.

The new egg surface replacing the elevated vitelline membrane follows the highly irregular contour of the pocket which formerly held the cortical granules (Fig 2b). The second component of the granules which was left behind in these pockets gradually moves outward with in a few minutes after fertilization. Taking up calcium from the medium surrounding it forms a hyaline layer close to the egg

surface which is without a bounding membrane but is supported by delicate cytoplasmic projections. This layer holds the blastomeres together after cleavage and acts as a protective covering after the larva has left the fertilization membrane.

While these changes are occurring at the surface the sperm head is carried a short way into the egg cytoplasm. For some three minutes it is possible to distinguish it among the granular inclusion in very transparent eggs. After this and while part of the tail is still outside the egg the sperm nucleus begins to swell and can no longer be recognized in living eggs. Within two more minutes a halo of hyaline rays begins to appear in this region. This is the sperm aster (Fig 3c) formed by the egg cytoplasm under the organizing influence of the sperm centriole.

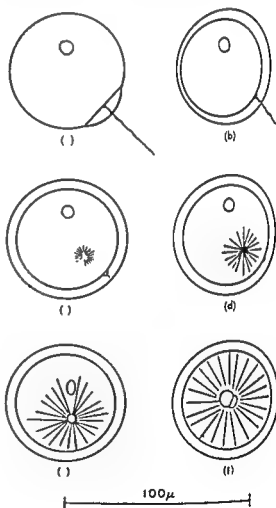


Fig 3 Fertilization of the sea urchin egg (a) Forty seconds after immersion. Sperm head beginning to enter cytoplasm. (b) The minute after immersion. Sperm head fully inside the egg. (c) Five minutes after immersion. Sperm head inside the egg with a sperm aster forming. (d) Six minutes after immersion. Sperm head inside the egg with a sperm aster forming. (e) Egg with a sperm aster forming. (f) Egg with a sperm aster forming. Syngamy completed. Sperm aster fully formed.

ed ry car fully o th t th ar life his-  
f lly k wn A f w of these w ll be out  
a f ll w ng ct ns

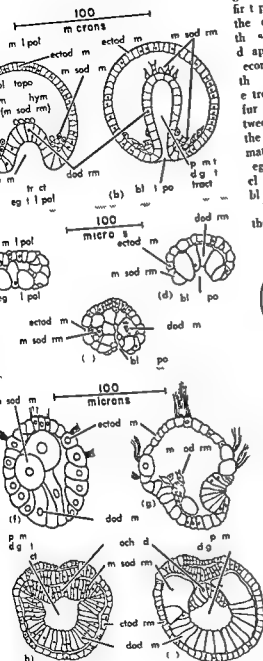


Fig 5 G t l h d i r v l m d m f m t  
( ) E l y tag y lly gg (b) L t tag  
y lly gg (c) L t h l t u l y lly gg f th  
s n l L t t (d) E l y g t r l l y lly gg f L t  
f ( ) L t g t l y lly gg f L t t  
(f) P l l t h l m p m sod m f m t c t  
th gh t f b l t u l d t h p h l a r v  
(h) C s s s e c t f A m p h m b r y m m d t e l y  
f t g l t ( ) C m f A m p h m

# MOLLUSCAN DEVELOPMENT

**Fertilization and cleavage** The eggs of *Mytilus* are fertilizable just after the germinal vesicle breaks down (Fig 1d). At the first polar body is given off from the animal pole the egg surface of the egg bulges out from the so-called polar lobe (Fig 6a-d). The bulge disappears shortly after reappearing at the time of second polar body formation. When the egg cleaves the egg cytoplasm is segregated into a more extreme polar lobe (Fig 6e-f) and the cleavage furrow divides the remaining material equally between the two lobes. This is the first cleavage furrow the polar lobe disappears (Fig 6g-h). The material to one side of the blastomeres (Fig 6g-h). The egg material is again segregated at the second cleavage and again mixed with the first furrow blastomeres.

It has been noted for this type of cleavage that the mitotic spindle is a latent one; the blastomeres do not reorganize to change the direction of

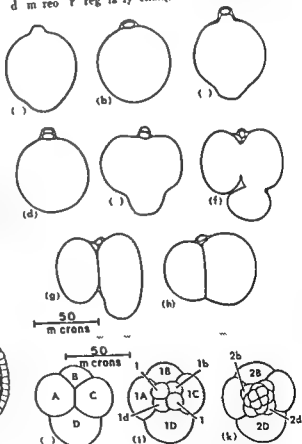


Fig 6 M t u t d l y l g l t h m l  
Mytilus ( ) First polar body formation at 1m l  
p l p l l b t g l p l (b) First polar body  
formation at 1m l p l l b t g l p l (d) S  
d p l b d y f r m t (f) First polar body  
(h) Two-cell stage (i) Four-cell stage (j) Eight-cell  
stage first cleavage furrow (l) 1b 1c 1d  
(k) Second cleavage furrow with the four cells from

an outer layer the ectoderm which will later produce the nervous system as well as the outermost body covering and an inner layer the endoderm from which will be formed the lining of the functional digestive tract and its associated organs and glands. As the primitive digestive tract extends into the blastocoel its opening to the outside becomes smaller and is known as the blastopore.

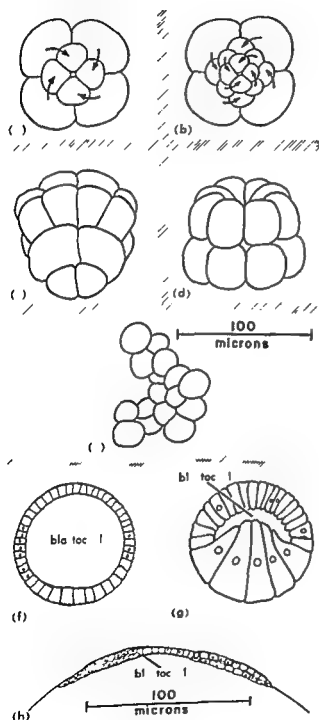


Fig. 4. Symmetry of cleavage patterns and invertebrate blastulae. (a, b) Spiral cleavage. (c) Plate cleavage. (d) Radial cleavage. (e) Reticulately formed blastomeres and large blastocoel. (f) Blastomeres at vegetal pole of sea urchin blastula. (g) Squid blastula. (h) Squid blastula. Blastomeres in (h) are arranged in a spiral pattern.

A modification of this process of endoderm formation occurs among some species having large yolk filled vegetal blastomeres (Fig. 5c). These actively dividing cells of the animal pole spread down to cover these more inert blastomeres (Fig. 5d) which become the endoderm and later form the digestive organs while the overlying ectoderm leaves a small opening in the vegetal region which corresponds to the blastopore (Fig. 5e).

**Mesoderm formation.** At this time the first few cells belonging to a third body layer the mesoderm make their appearance by slipping from the ectoderm layer into the blastocoel. The early mesoderm cells are of a primitive sort (mesenchyme) possessing pseudopodia and often moving about freely between the ectoderm and endoderm. In sponges and coelenterates no more highly organized middle layer is formed even in adult animals but in the other phyla the so-called true mesoderm is endodermal in origin either being formed by successive divisions of a cell which originally belonged to the endoderm (Fig. 5f, g) as in annelids and mollusks or separating off from the primitive digestive tract as in *Amphioxus* (Fig. 5h, i).

In either case this mesodermal tissue spreads out between the ectoderm and endoderm and in all phyla more advanced than the flatworms splits through its center into an inner and an outer layer. The cavity thus formed within the mesoderm is the true body cavity in which the various internal organs lie. The outer layer of mesoderm becomes closely applied to the inner side of the ectoderm forming body wall muscles and other supporting layers while the inner layer of mesoderm surrounds the endoderm with layers of muscle. The organs of circulation, excretion and reproduction as well as all muscles and connective tissue are eventually formed from this mesodermal layer.

**Later development.** So far it is possible to summarize the development of invertebrate animals as a group but beyond this point each subgroup follows its own course and these are so widely divergent that every one must be considered separately. Meaningful generalizations are not even possible within a single class in some cases as attested by the various modes of development occurring among the Insecta some of which proceed directly from egg to adult form while others go through an elaborate series of changes. See INSECT PHYSIOLOGY, INSECTA.

In very many species there is a sharp break in the life history when the larva after passing through a number of morphological phases which lead from one to the next with a steady increase in size and complexity abruptly forms a whole new set of rudimentary adult organs which take over the vital functions. This metamorphosis represents the end of the larval period. The tiny animal which produces the first fruiting form is recognized as the offspring of its parent.

For more or less arbitrary reasons the developmental process of certain invertebrate forms is

been studied very carefully that their life history is fully known. A few of them will be studied in the following sections.

# MOLLUSCAN DEVELOPMENT

**Fertilization and cleavage** The eggs of *Mytilus*, the common mussel, are fertilizable just after the germinal vesicle breaks down (Fig. 1d). As the first polar body is given off from the animal pole, the vegetal surface of the egg bulges out to form the so-called polar lobe (Fig. 6a-d). The bulge disappears shortly thereafter at the time of the second polar body formation. When the egg cleaves, the vegetal plate is segregated into a meristem, polar lobe (Fig. 6f) and the cleavage furrow divides the remaining material equally between two blastomeres. The contraction of the polar lobe disappears returning the polar lobe to normal to one of the blastomeres (Fig. 6g,h). The egg is maternal again segregated at the second cleavage stage and associated with one of the four blastomeres.

It is characteristic of this type of cleavage that the mitotic spindle lies a plane in the blastomeres and moves very early changing the direction of

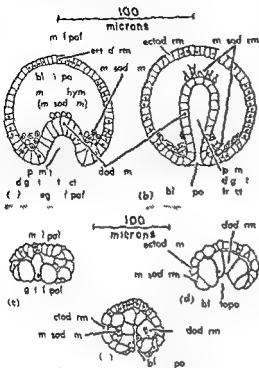


Fig. 5. Early development of *Mytilus*. (a) Fertilized egg. (b) First polar body formation. (c) First polar body formation. (d) First polar body formation. (e) First polar body formation. (f) First polar body formation. (g) First polar body formation. (h) First polar body formation. (i) First polar body formation. (j) First polar body formation. Scale bar: 100 microns.

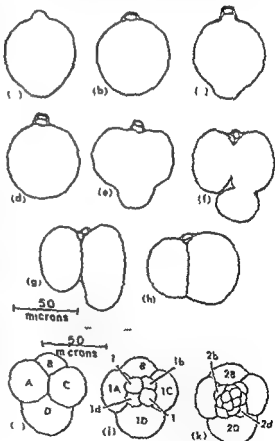


Fig. 6. Cleavage stages of *Mytilus*. (a) First polar body formation. (b) First polar body formation. (c) First polar body formation. (d) First polar body formation. (e) First polar body formation. (f) First polar body formation. (g) First polar body formation. (h) First polar body formation. (i) First polar body formation. (j) First polar body formation. (k) First polar body formation. Scale bar: 50 microns.



an outer layer the ectoderm which will later produce the nervous system as well as the outermost body covering and an inner layer the endoderm from which will be formed the lining of the functional digestive tract and its associated organs and glands. As the primitive digestive tract extends into the blastocoel its opening to the outside becomes smaller and is known as the blastopore.

A modification of this process of endoderm formation occurs among some species having large yolk filled vegetal blastomeres (Fig 5c). The small actively dividing cells of the animal pole region spread down to cover the more inert blastomeres (Fig 5d) which become the endoderm and later form the digestive organs while the overlying ectoderm leaves a small opening in the vegetal region which corresponds to the blastopore (Fig 5e).

**Mesoderm formation** At this time the first few cells belonging to a third body layer the mesoderm make their appearance by slipping from the ectoderm layer into the blastocoel. The early mesoderm cells are of a primitive sort (mesenchyme) possessing pseudopodia and often moving about freely between the ectoderm and endoderm. In sponges and coelenterates no more highly organized middle layer is formed even in adult animals but in the other phyla the so-called true mesoderm is endodermal in origin either being formed by successive divisions of a cell which originally belonged to the endoderm (Fig 5f,g) or in annelids and mollusks or separating off from the primitive digestive tract as in *Amphioxus* (Fig 5h,i).

In either case this mesodermal tissue spreads out between the ectoderm and endoderm and in all phyla more advanced than the flatworms splits through its center into an inner and an outer layer. The cavity thus formed within the mesoderm is the true body cavity in which the various internal organs lie. The outer layer of mesoderm becomes closely applied to the inner side of the ectoderm forming body wall muscles and other supporting layers while the inner layer of mesoderm surrounds the endoderm with layers of muscle. The organs of circulation, excretion and reproduction as well as all muscles and connective tissue are eventually formed from this mesodermal layer.

**Later development** So far it is possible to summarize the development of invertebrate animals as a group but beyond this point each subgroup follows its own course and these are so widely divergent that every one must be considered separately. Meaningful generalizations are not even possible within a single class in some cases as attested by the various modes of development occurring among the Insecta some of which proceed directly from egg to adult form while others go through an elaborate series of changes. See INSECT PHYSIOLOGY.

In very many species there is a sharp break in the life history when the larva after passing through a number of morphological phases which lead from one to the next with a steady increase in size and complexity abruptly forms a whole new set of rudimentary adult organs which take over vital functions. This metamorphosis represents the end of the larval period. The tiny animal which produces it for the first time recognizable as the offspring of its parent.

For more or less arbitrary reasons the development process of certain invertebrate forms has

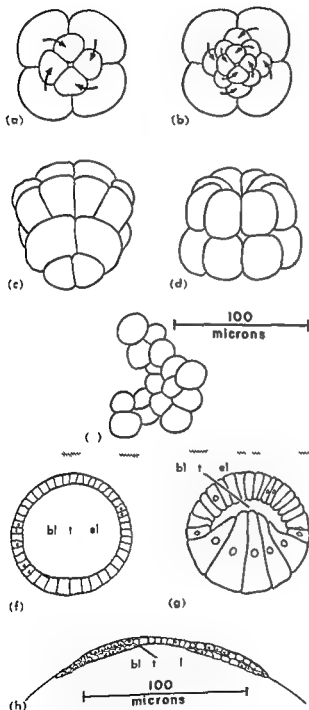


Fig 4 Symmetry of cleavage patterns in invertebrate blastulae (a) Spiral cleavage (b) Bilateral cleavage (c) Spiral cleavage (d) Bilateral cleavage (e) Irregular cleavage (f) Spiral cleavage (g) Bilateral cleavage (h) Irregular cleavage. The diagrams show the arrangement of cells in the blastula stage, with the central blastocoel labeled 'bl' and the surrounding cells labeled 't' and 'e'.



their slant by 90° at each division so that a spiral pattern of blastomeres results. Such spiral cleavage is found in the mollusks and in the flat round and segmented worms.

Since the animal-vegetal axis is easy to recognize in such eggs it has been possible to record the course of cleavage very accurately and to determine the role of particular blastomeres in normally developing embryos. The four-cell stage blastomere containing the polar lobe material is designated as D and proceeding in a clockwise direction the others become A, B and C (Fig. 6*i*). At the third cleavage these divide very unequally (Fig. 6*j, k*) into four large vegetal macromeres (1A, 1B, 1C and 1D) and four micromeres at the animal side (1a, 1b, 1c and 1d). See CELL LINEAGE.

**Blastula stage** After two more such unequal divisions the resulting 28 micromeres have formed a hollow blastula with the four macromeres 3A, 3B, 3C and 3D at its vegetal side. These then extend into the blastular cavity where their descendants will form the digestive tract except for one of the D daughter cells produced at the next cleavage 4d which is set aside as the mesoderm mother cell (Fig. 5*f*).

**Trochophore stage** During the succeeding cleavages some of the cells develop cilia; the blastular symmetry becomes bilateral instead of radial and the micromeres extend down almost to the vegetal pole thus covering the macromeres except at the small opening of the blastopore. After 24 hours of development the cilia are organized into

an encircling girdle and an apical tuft at the animal pole and the larva now called a trochophore begins its free-swimming stage (Fig. 1*a*). The blastopore is shifted forward by the later proliferation of the ectodermal cells of the other side (Fig. 7*b*) and then closed but the larval mouth is later formed at this place (see PROTEROSTOMY). Behind it the endoderm forms a stomach and a narrow tube gradually extends from this to make the intestine. The anus forms later at the place where the intestine reaches the ectoderm.

At this stage a group of ectodermal cells is forming the shell gland which will secrete the shell (Fig. 7*c*). Two small protuberances will unite and develop into the foot and a pair of elongated pits beside the mouth will form the balancing organs. The 4d blastomere has cleaved into two cells located on either side of the mouth which are going to rise at this stage to two rows of mesoderm cells called the mesodermal bands.

**Veliger stage** Within a week the shell gland has grown and begun to secrete the shell and the foot is projecting prominently. The stomach increases in size and bulges into the shell cavity and cells from the ends of the mesodermal bands form muscular attachments for the stomach and esophagus. The girdle of ciliated cells (velum) enlarges and the rudiments of a nervous system including eye cups appear near the apical tuft. The larva is now called a veliger (Fig. 7*d*).

**Metamorphosis** Following further development, especially of the alimentary tract which becomes

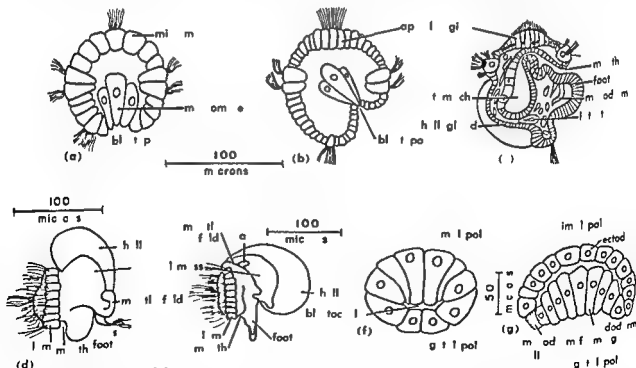


Fig. 7 Stages in the development of *Patella*. (a) Late blastula of *Patella*; gastropod in a tuft. (b) Early trochophore stage of *Patella*; blastopore shifted forward. (c) Mid trochophore stage of *Patella*; velum beginning to form. (d) Late trochophore stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (e) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (f) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (g) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (h) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (i) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (j) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (k) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (l) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (m) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (n) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (o) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (p) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (q) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (r) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (s) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (t) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (u) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (v) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (w) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (x) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (y) Early veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed. (z) Late veliger stage of *Patella*; velum well developed.

of *Patella*. (d) Veliger stage of *Patella*. (e) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (f) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (g) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (h) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (i) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (j) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (k) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (l) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (m) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (n) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (o) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (p) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (q) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (r) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (s) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (t) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (u) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (v) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (w) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (x) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (y) Late veliger stage of *Patella*. (z) Late veliger stage of *Patella*.



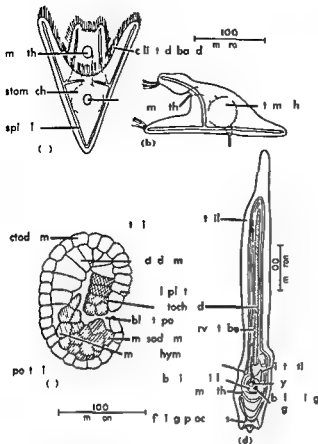


Fig 9 (a) Pluteus stage of sea urchin larva ventral view (b) Side view (c) Section through tunicate gasket (d) Tadpole stage of tunicate larva

### TUNICATE DEVELOPMENT

The fact that certain structures characteristic of vertebrates and found in no other invertebrates appear during the larval life of the tunicates forms the basis for giving these otherwise unprepossessing animals their high status at the top of the invertebrate subkingdom and makes them especially interesting from the evolutionary aspect.

**Fertilization** The eggs of the tunicate *Styela* begin meiosis as they are laid going as far as the metaphase of the first reduction division where they stop until they are fertilized. The spermatozoon penetrates the thick chorion enters the egg at the vegetal pole and stimulates it to proceed with meiosis. While the polar bodies are being given off cytoplasmic streaming segregates the cell components into a yellow pigmented region a clear yolk free region and a gray yolk mass. It is possible to recognize these differently colored materials later in development and determine the role of each in body layer formation.

**Cleavage** The first cleavage divides the egg into similar blastomeres. Because of the arrangement of the colored cytoplasm the cleavage is already visible. The 16 cell stage consists of two layers of eight cells each (Fig 4h) with the yellow cytoplasm contained in four of the vegetal cells. At the stage with about 40 cells a tail fin is formed. The prospective ectoderm making up the animal

side consists of thick columnar cells while the future endoderm cells at the vegetal side are relatively flat (Fig 7f). This difference is reversed before gastrulation begins (Fig 7g).

**Gastrulation** The gastrula is formed by the movement into the blastocoel of the vegetal cells followed by an overlapping growth of the prospective ectoderm. Within this enveloping layer the yellow cells produce mesoderm, the other vegetal cells form endoderm. As the gastrula develops the surface layer anterior to the blastopore (Fig 9c) forms neural tissue which is organized into a brain and spinal cord while the mesoderm beneath it forms a notochord, a precursor of the vertebral column characteristic of vertebrate animals. The notochord elongates as the axis of a tail and the larva hatches from its chorion and begins a free swimming stage.

**Tadpole stage** During this stage (Fig 9d) the tadpole acquires an extensive but nonfunctional digestive tract, two pairs of gill slits (also characteristic of vertebrates), a cerebral eye and a balancing organ. At its anterior end it has three papillae with which it will fix itself to a substratum when its short tadpole stage ends.

**Metamorphosis** When metamorphosis begins (Fig 11) the tail ectoderm contracts strongly bending and breaking up the notochord, nerve cord and tail muscles which are consumed by phagocytes. The chin region next to the organ of fixation elongates greatly carrying the mouth upward. A new nervous system replaces the larval one. The

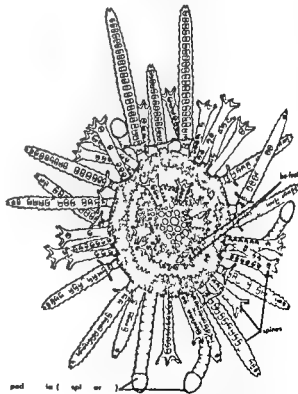
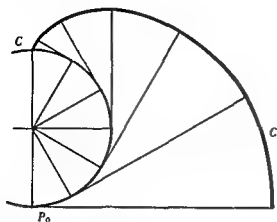


Fig 10 Yucca chiod (P. ella jopo c) after metamorphosis (F. M. K. Oka, ak. a. d. J. C. Da. M. to. ph. s. of part of larva of P. ella jopo ca. M. t. a. s. d. dollar. B. I. B. I. 106. 83-99. 1954).



An involute  $C$  of curve  $C$ 

By varying the length of the string all involutes of  $C$  are obtained. See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY

[L M BL]

## Involutional melancholia

A severe depressive reaction occurring at the time of the female climacteric and during the corresponding age period in men. It is characterized by symptoms of sadness, anxiety, guilt, and low self-esteem, similar to the depressed states of manic depressive psychosis. Patients often have hypochondriacal and nihilistic delusions; a combination with paranoid reactions is not infrequent. Usually such patients do not exhibit any intellectual deterioration (see MANIC DEPRESSIVE PSYCHOSIS).

The etiology of the disorder is unclear. Endocrine processes seem to be of importance, but detailed evidence for such an assumption does not exist. Organic mechanisms are probably similar to the depressive states in manic depressive psychoses. Psychological observations have shown that most involutional depressions react to real and imaginary deprivation of love and esteem with severe depression. Often a deprivation of a similar type can be detected in an analysis of the patient's relationship with his mother during his infancy and early childhood.

In the differential diagnosis organic reactions, premenstrual disorders, paranoid states, and schizophrenia need to be considered. The differential diagnosis of neurotic and reactive depression may be very difficult (see PARANOID STATE; SCHIZOPHRENIA).

Electric convulsive treatment, tranquilizing drugs, and psychic energizer, in combination with psychotherapy, are the usual methods of treatment. In mild cases electric convulsive treatment can and should be avoided. Hospitalization is usually indicated, and the prevention of suicide and self-destructive behavior is particularly important. See PSYCHIC ENERGIZER; PSYCHOTHERAPY; TRANQUILIZER.

[FCR]

Bibliography: J R Fwalt, F A Strecker, and F G Flaugh, *Practical Clinical Psychiatry*, 3rd ed. 1957.

## Iodate

A negative ion having the formula  $\text{IO}_3^-$  and derived from iodic acid  $\text{HIO}_3$ . Some salts such as  $\text{KHzIO}_3$  and  $\text{KH}(\text{IO}_3)_2$  indicate that the acid may exist as polymers of the ion indicated by the empirical formula. Sodium and potassium iodates are the most important salts and are used in medicine.

Iodates occur along with  $\text{NaNO}_3$  in Chile saltpeter. They are prepared in an electrolytic reaction similar to that for the preparation of chlorates or by oxidation of iodides with chlorine.

The iodates are more stable and are weaker oxidizing agents than bromates and chlorates. See BROMATE; CHLORATE; IODINE. [EWR]

## Iodide

A compound which contains the iodine atom in the  $-1$  oxidation state and which is derived from hydroiodic acid  $\text{HI}$ .

The chemistry of iodine and its ability to form covalent and ionic iodides is very similar to the properties described for chloride. See CHLORIDE.

In comparing the iodide ion with the other halide ions, it should be pointed out that the iodide ion is more covalent, the least reducing agent of the group, and forms the least stable complexes. The aqueous solubilities of the metal iodides are much the same as the chlorides but in general a little lower. In organic solvents the order of solubility is frequently reversed. Bismuth and mercuric iodides are only slightly soluble. Iodide ion combines with free iodine to form the triiodide ion  $\text{I}_3^-$ .

Sodium or potassium iodide is added to table salt to prevent malfunction of the thyroid gland. Silver iodide is used in photographic film and papers.

Iodide can be detected in solution by oxidizing it to the free element with chlorine. It imparts a violet color to the solvent when extracted into carbon tetrachloride. See COMPLEX COMPOUND; HALOGENATED HYDROCARBON; IODINE; PHOTOGRAPHIC MATERIALS; THYROID GLAND. [FWR]

## Iodine

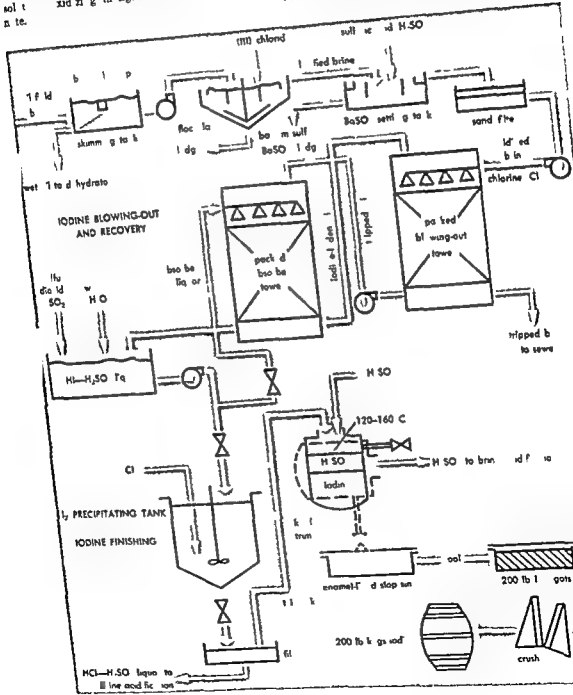
A nonmetallic element that is the next-to-heaviest member of the halogen family, group VIIa of the periodic table. Iodine, atomic number 53, exists under ordinary conditions as a gray, lustrous black solid crystal of which pure is a metal at metallic luster. Heating the solid yields a violet vapor. See HALOGEN ELEMENTS.

Uses: Pharmaceutical and therapeutic uses are found for over half of the lines concerned at the present time. One of the principal such uses is in antiseptics, but a large number of preparations containing iodine compounds are also used for the treatment of various disorders and as aids in x-ray procedures. Insecticides, dyes, compounds that combine into a useful life of drinking water. See ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS; ANTISEPTIC.

Perchloric acid exists in solution both as the  $\text{HClO}_4$  and the  $\text{HClO}_4$ . The occurrence of the perchloric acid form with iodine but not with the other halogens is attributed to the large size of the iodine atom which accommodates more easily the  $\text{HClO}_4$  (both forms are known). The perchloric acid is a powerful oxidant in acid solution and is a strong oxidizing agent in permanganate.

**Compounds of iodine-organic** There are two important classes of organic compounds containing iodine: the iodides and the esters in which the iodine is in a positive oxidation state.

**Iodides** The simple organic iodide resembles the other halides in its properties. The carbon-iodine bond is the weakest of the halogen-carbon bonds and the iodine is easily displaced by the other halogens. Because of the very low ionization potential of the iodine atom, the iodides are all the densest and the least volatile. Alkyl iodides are prepared by the reaction of





dioxide  $\text{SO}_2$  or hydrogen sulfide  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ . The thiosulfate ion  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$  is oxidized to the tetrathionate ion  $\text{S}_4\text{O}_6^{2-}$  by iodine and this reaction serves as a basis for the analytical determination of iodine. The iodide ion is easily reoxidized to free iodine by moderately strong oxidants such as ferric iron and bromine. It is slowly oxidized by oxygen in acid solution.



In the presence of iodide ion, iodine reacts with starch solutions to form an intense blue color which is often used to detect iodine in very low concentrations.

Iodine is hydrolyzed only slightly in water to form iodide and hypiodous acid in which iodine is in the  $1+$  oxidation state.



However, in alkaline solution the above reaction goes completely to the right because  $\text{OH}^-$  ions are removed to form water. The hypiodite is unstable and especially in strongly alkaline solution disproportionates further to produce the iodate ion.



The oxidation of iodine or iodide in alkaline solution with strong oxidants such as hypochlorite also produces hypiodite and iodate.



but excess oxidant will convert these species into periodate.



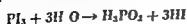
In acid solution oxidation of iodine with strong oxidants such as chlorine, permanganate, and iodate will produce first iodine monochloride  $\text{ICl}$  in which the iodine is assigned a  $1+$  oxidation state.



Further oxidation will convert the  $\text{ICl}$  into iodate.

**Compounds of iodine inorganic.** Iodine forms useful and important compounds with hydrogen, metals, the other halogen elements, and oxygen.

**Hydrogen iodide.** This compound is a colorless gas with a boiling point of  $-35.3^\circ\text{C}$ . It dissolves in water at  $10^\circ\text{C}$  and one atmosphere pressure to the extent of  $70^\circ$  by weight. The solution is known as hydriodic acid. Gaseous hydrogen iodide can be prepared by reaction of hydrogen and iodine vapor over a platinum catalyst but is most easily prepared in the laboratory by the reaction of water with phosphorus triiodide.



**Iodides.** The metallic salts of hydriodic acid are typical saltlike compounds with high melting points. Except for the silver and lead compounds (I) and mercury (I) salts, which are insoluble, they are generally quite soluble in water.

Potassium iodide mp  $680^\circ\text{C}$ , solubility in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  144 g/100 g at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  is also readily soluble in methanol. Commercially, it is the most important compound of iodine. It is generally made by treating iodine with potassium hydroxide to form the iodate and iodide and then heating to decompose the iodate to iodide.

Some iodides such as titanium and zirconium tetraiodides decompose to the elements at high temperatures; very high purity zirconium metal is prepared commercially in this manner.

With the nonmetallic elements, iodine forms typical covalent compounds such as  $\text{NI}$ ,  $\text{NR}$ ,  $\text{PI}_3$ , and  $\text{AsI}_3$  which possess low melting points and considerable solubility in organic solvents.

Iodide ion forms anionic complexes in solution with a number of metal ions and in many cases salts of these ions have been prepared; for example,  $\text{K}_2\text{HgI}_4$ ,  $\text{KAgI}_2$ , and  $\text{CsSnI}_3$ .

**Compounds with other halogens.** The simplest compounds of iodine with other halogens are binary ones such as  $\text{IBr}$  and  $\text{ICl}$  which are known as interhalogens. These are low melting solids with halogenlike properties. Iodine also forms two stable reactive fluorides,  $\text{IF}_3$  and  $\text{IF}_5$ ; the former a colorless liquid, the latter a colorless gas at room temperature.

A number of metal trihalide compounds such as  $\text{KI}_3$ ,  $\text{CsI}_3$ , and  $\text{CsClIBr}$  are known. They contain a linear trihalide ion with the heaviest halogen in the center. Related to these compounds are the polyiodides ( $\text{I}_3^-$ ,  $\text{I}_7^-$ ), the anions of which can be thought of as complexes of free iodine and the iodide ion. They form stable black solid salts with the larger cations and compounds such as  $\text{KI}_3$  have been prepared.

**Compounds of the  $1+$  and  $3+$  oxidation states.** Aside from the interhalogen type compound, the unipositive oxidation state of iodine also exists in compounds of the type  $\text{I}(\text{py})_2\text{NO}_3$  and  $\text{I}(\text{py})_2\text{ClO}_4$  which contain the  $\text{I}^+$  cation complexed with an aromatic amine ( $\text{py}$  = pyridine).

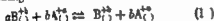
Although  $3+$  iodine is not known in aqueous solution, compounds such as  $\text{I}(\text{NO}_3)_3$ ,  $\text{I}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ , and  $\text{ICl}_3$  can be made by oxidizing or chlorinating iodine in the absence of water.

**Iodates and periodates.** The most stable and well known of the positive iodine compounds are the iodates ( $5+$ ) and the periodates ( $7+$ ) which can be prepared by oxidation of iodine or iodides in alkaline solution. Iodic acid  $\text{HIO}_3$  and periodic acid  $\text{H}_5\text{IO}_6$  are stable white crystalline solids which are quite soluble in water. Heating iodic acid produces iodine pentoxide  $\text{I}_2\text{O}_5$ , also a stable white solid which reacts with water to reform iodic acid. Except for the salts of the alkali metals and magnesium, most iodates are only sparingly soluble in water. Acid solutions of iodates are strong oxidizing agents but are reduced to iodine or iodide ion. The solid iodates are fairly stable to heat but decompose eventually to oxygen and either the iodide or the oxide plus iodine.

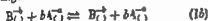
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## An ion exchange



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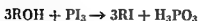
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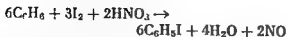
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g m (-C-OSO N) e t n a w e d a b o

the corresponding alcohol and either HI or phosphorus triiodide  $PI_3$



Methyl iodide which is prepared in this manner is a colorless liquid bp 42.5 C d(20/4) 2.28 It finds some use as an alkylating agent

Aryl iodides can be prepared from the hydrocarbon iodine and nitric acid



Iodobenzene which is prepared in this manner is a yellow liquid bp 188.6 C mp -31.4 C d(20/4) 1.83 It can be used to prepare organic compounds of positive iodine See HALOGENATED HYDROCARBON HALOGENATION

The alkyl iodides are the more reactive reacting with hydroxyl ion to give the alcohol and iodide ion



and with amines to alkylate the nitrogen atom



**Positive iodine compounds** A number of compounds are known in which iodine is formally in a positive oxidation state. These compounds are characteristic of iodine alone among the halogens and occur only if an aromatic or olefinic group is attached to the iodine

The first group known as iodoso compounds has the formula  $RIO$ . They are formed by oxidizing the corresponding iodide with strong oxidants such as fuming nitric acid. They are soluble in alcohol but not in water, are good oxidants, and are stable at ordinary temperatures. Treatment with HCl as well as chlorination of the original iodide produces related compounds, the iododichlorides  $RICl_2$ .

A second group of compounds is the iodoxy compounds  $RIO_2$ , which are prepared by oxidizing the iodoso compounds with hypochlorite. The iodoxy compounds have properties somewhat similar to the iodoso compounds.

If benzene is reacted with iodine pentoxide and iodine in concentrated sulfuric acid, diphenyliodonium bisulfate  $(C_6H_5)_2IHSO_4$  is obtained. This reaction is general for benzene derivatives and the products are typical ionic salts. The iodonium salts of many common anions have been prepared as have the hydroxides which are strong bases. Diphenyliodonium chloride  $(C_6H_5)_2ICl$  is a white solid sparingly soluble in water, has found some use as a disinfectant.

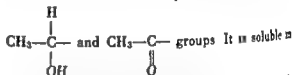
**Biological importance of iodine** Iodine is widely found in both plant and animal kingdoms. Because it occurs in most plants in only trace concentration, it has not been possible to decide whether iodine is essential to plant nutrition. However, in many cases additions of iodine do stimulate plant growth.

Iodine is essential to higher animals because of its relation to the thyroid gland. Iodine absorbed by the body is converted in the thyroid first to 3,5-diiodotyrosine and then to thyroxine, both of which are iodine-containing amino acids. Both compounds are secreted and transported to the tissues. See BROMINE CHLORINE FLUORINE IODATE IODIDE IODOFORM PERIODATE [M F O. N. A. C.]

**Bibliography** H. E. Kirk and D. E. Oth (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology* vol. 7, 1951; J. W. Mellor *Comprehensive Treatise of Inorganic and Theoretical Chemistry* suppl. 2, pt. 1, 1956; N. V. Sidgwick *The Chemical Elements and Their Compounds* vol. II, 1950.

## Iodoform

A yellow hexagonal solid with a penetrating odor, also called triiodomethane  $CHI_3$ . Its specific gravity is 4.08 and melting point 119 C. It is prepared by the action of iodine in a basic solution (NaOH) on ethanol or acetone or by the electrolysis of an alkaline  $I_2$  KI solution in the presence of ethanol or acetone. It serves as a qualitative test for the



organic solvents and insoluble in water. It has weak bactericidal properties and exerts antiseptic action when applied to raw wounds because of the liberation of free iodine. Its chief use is in ointments for minor skin diseases. It is toxic when taken internally. See ANTIMICROBIAL AGENTS HALOGENATED HYDROCARBON [E. H. H.]

## Ion

An atom or group of atoms which by loss or gain of one or more electrons has acquired an electric charge. If the ion is formed from an atom of hydrogen or an atom of a metal, it is usually positively charged; if the ion is formed from an atom of a nonmetal or from a group of atoms, it is usually negatively charged. The number of electronic charges carried by an ion is called its electrical valence. The charges are denoted by superscripts which give their sign and number; for example, a sodium ion which carries one positive charge is denoted by  $Na^+$ , a sulfate ion which carries two negative charges by  $SO_4^{2-}$ . See ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA CHEMICAL BINDING.

Salt ions are usually composed of orderly arrangements of ions which are not free to move easily in the solid. However, when the salt is fused or dissolved in water, the ions become free and when an electric field is applied to the salt in solution, the positively charged cations move toward the cathode and the negatively charged anions move toward the anode. At the electrode, the ions lose their electrical charge. This process is called electrolysis. See ELECTROLYSIS IONIC CRYSTAL SALT (CHEMICAL) VALF CL [T. C. W.]



hydrates phosphoric acid groups in nucleic acid weakly acidic phenolic —OH groups and thiol —SH groups in proteins. Proteins being amphoteric behave as anion exchangers in acid systems by virtue of amine —NH<sub>2</sub> side groups.

Since 1935 organic ion exchangers have been synthesized by incorporating functional groups in natural products such as coal, lignin and peat. An example of this type of organic exchanger is the product from sulfonation of soft coal. The sulfonic acid —SO<sub>3</sub>H functional groups are attached to the aromatic matrix of the coal. More recently cationic and anionic groups respectively have been incorporated in cellulose fabrics by phosphorylation with urea and phosphoric acid and by reaction with 2-aminoethylsulfuric acid to provide ion exchange properties.

The synthetic ion exchange resins were first prepared by the reaction of polyhydric phenols with formaldehyde. The weakly acidic phenolic groups providing cation exchange properties to the product. Cation exchange resins containing strongly acidic sulfonic acid groups were prepared later by the condensation of phenols and formaldehydes in the presence of sodium sulfite. Anion exchange resins were prepared by the polymerization of amines with formaldehyde.

The most recent technique for the production of ion exchange resins consists of first forming the polymer unit followed by incorporation of the functional ionic group. For example the polymerization of styrene produces linear polystyrene chains. The  $\pi$  are held together (crosslinked) by divinyl benzene to produce a network structure. The sulfonic acid groups are then attached to this network by sulfonating with concentrated sulfuric acid. Quaternary amines may be attached to the same matrix by an analogous treatment (chloromethylation of the copolymer followed by reaction with a tertiary amine).

These resins now by far the most popular are offered commercially with various bead sizes (mesh) and with different porosity or crosslinking (percentage of divinylbenzene). The degree of crosslinking controls their swelling properties. The low crosslinked resins swell to many times their dry volume in aqueous solution while the highly crosslinked resins show little volume change. In the highly crosslinked resins the more rigid network structure retards the ionic mobility. The preponderance of the concentrated salt solution contained in the resin gel phase. As a result of such concentration friction, ion exchange occurs more slowly because of increased resistance to the movement of hydrated counter ion in the resin gel phase. Difference in resin affinity between pairs of ions are also affected—increasing will increase crosslinking and thereby compensate for slowing the exchange process.

High porosity in an ion exchange resin results in easier accessibility to ions of high molecular weight thereby providing a basis for their effective separation from smaller ionic species.

The control of resin porosity possible in the method of manufacture permits the researcher to select the most suitable tool for his specific needs. In addition these resins are chemically and physically stable and possess high capacity.

The functional units most often employed in synthetic cation exchange resins are sulfonic, phosphonic, carboxylic and phenolic groups. The sulfonic resins are strongly acidic as one would expect from their normal behavior in aqueous systems. The different exchange behavior of sodium ion with a carboxylic and sulfonic acid resin illustrates the acidity function. Sodium ion in a neutral solution of sodium chloride will not exchange appreciably with the hydrogen ion of a carboxylic resin in the acid form since the —CO<sub>2</sub>H groups are not appreciably dissociated. Only in an alkaline system can exchange occur readily between sodium ion and hydrogen ion. The continuous removal of hydrogen ion by hydroxyl ion to form water necessitates continuous replenishment of the small amounts of hydrogen ion normally replaced by sodium ion. In the case of the sulfonic acid cation exchanger the —SO<sub>3</sub>H groups are essentially completely dissociated and exchange between sodium ion and hydrogen ion can occur normally in neutral systems.

The functional groups for the synthetic anion exchange resins are usually amine. When primary, secondary and tertiary amine are incorporated the exchanger is weakly basic since the amines are strongly associated in aqueous systems. If the functional group is a quaternary amine the exchanger behaves like a strong base.

The incorporation of other functional groups to produce unusually selective ion exchange resins has been attempted with some success. For example thiol —SH groups have been used to produce a resin which exhibits a special affinity for metals that form mercaptan. Incorporation of a chelate group in phenylene diglycine produces a resin with a high selectivity for the transition elements.

The presence of immobilized functional groups and the neutralization of their charge by mobile ion of opposite polarity provide the resin with preponderance of mobile ions of one charge. For example in the presence of moderately concentrated electrolyte solution, diffusion of anions into the resin gel phase does not alter this situation. As a result there is no selective transfer of the mobile counter ion under the influence of an electrical potential gradient. Ion exchange membrane coherent sheets of ion exchange resin have been prepared to take advantage of this characteristic property. **SEMI-IMPERMEABLE MEMBRANE**

A principal application of ion exchange membranes has been the electrolytic separation of electrolytes. This technique is especially applicable by arranging cation and anion exchange membranes in an alternating pattern between the electrodes. The imposition of a potential gradient will result in the concentration and dilution of electrolyte contained in the adjoining compartments.

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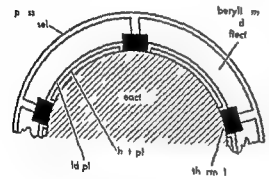


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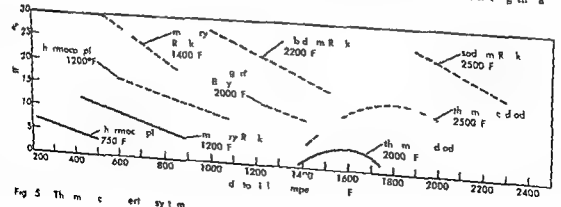


Fig 5 Th m c e r t s y t m

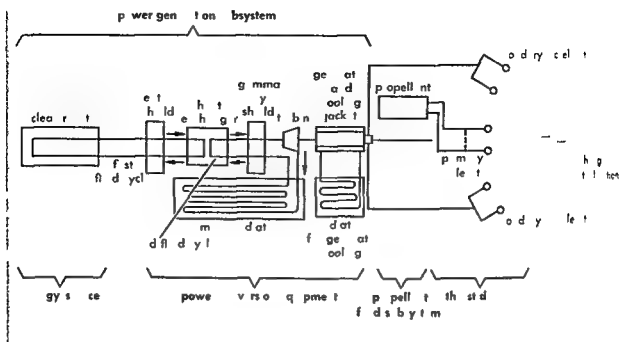


Fig 1 Schematic representation of nuclear power and electrostatic propulsion system

using a gas cycle the preferred fluid being argon a heavy inert gas. A typical Brayton gas cycle system is shown in Fig 2. Heat is transferred from the reactor to high pressure gas; the gas is then expanded in a turbine which drives a generator and compressor. Upon leaving the turbine the gas is cooled in a radiator then recompressed and fed back into the reactor (see BRAYTON CYCLE). In the Rankine cycle a liquid is used for heat transfer from the reactor leading to evaporation with subsequent expansion of the vapor in the turbine; the direct Rankine cycle (see RANKINE CYCLE). Because this would spread radioactivity the indirect Rankine cycle provides for a heat exchanger between a primary all-liquid cycle and a secondary liquid vapor cycle. Because of uncertainties in the boiling heat transfer rate under weightless conditions in space the intermediate link Rankine cycle of Fig 3 appears most attractive. evaporation does not occur in the heat exchanger but in a boiler separator. The saturated liquid from the heat exchanger is expanded to high velocity in the boiler separator. A portion of the liquid evaporates. In subsequent spiral ducting liquid and vapor are separated by centrifugal effect. The vapor is ducted to the turbine and the liquid is returned to the heat exchanger together with liquid from the radiator in which the vapor is condensed and cooled following expansion in the turbine. Suitable working fluids are mercury for smaller power plant and sodium or rubidium for larger systems.

The radiator is the largest and heaviest component of the power generation system. Its purpose is to radiate excess heat into space. This heat is the result of limited efficiency of energy conversion. The efficiency of the conversion system defined as ratio of electrical power output (ekw) to thermal

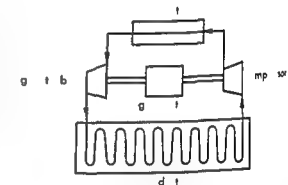


Fig 2 Power generation system using the Brayton gas cycle

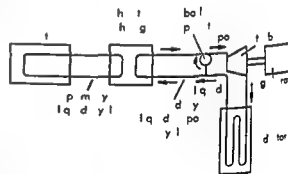


Fig 3 Power generation system using the indirect Rankine cycle

power output (kw) of the reactor is 6-7% for a 3-ekw system (mercury Rankine cycle) about 13% for systems in the 30-300 ekw range (mercury Rankine cycle or argon Brayton cycle) and 20-23% for 1000-20000 kw systems using rubidium sodium. Figure 4 shows a survey of the achieved and expected conversion efficiencies of various

ult. Fort nately the field of an ion beam ext acts le tron of ne by h t fil ments the eby k ep ng h v hicle ne tral and pr ding the electro s needed for pa e ch rge cut al zation The general arr ng me t of th lect o sou es and the o cil ating p th through the low-den it ion beam under th combin d eff ct f th ir wa th rmal eloc ity (wh h is compa ble t the eloc ity f the ons 100 000-300 000 ft/ ec) and the attracting electr c field f th o beam ar shown i Fig 6

Low io mass s gh l iage nd ah rt accelera ti n chamb s a e requ ed for high current den ties. O the other hand for a ven exhaust eloc ity (r specific imp l e) high thrust d n ity requ res l g ion mas s E pec ally f r lowe spec fi imp ul s on emph s on heavy s ns if a low thrust de sity is to b avo d

The spec fi impul e c nnot s mply be elected to be a max mum but m st b optimiz d as a function of propul ion t m propul n y tem w ight, and effi e cy of co rt ng ele tr cal powe into power of the exh ust j t. F r m s ion to the moon p c fi impul e of 3000-7000 sec are equ ed for m t Ve us or Vls a spec fi impul es of 10 000-20 000 sec a needed Spec fi imp l e be yo d 20 000 sec are f i t r t nly for m s ion s to the borde s of our ol s ystem See ELECTROMAG NETIC PROPULSION MAGNETOGAS DYNAMICS IN CLEAR AIRCRAFT PROPULSION e ol o INTERPLA E TARY PROPULSION [K.A.E.]

B b iog phy R H Boden Th Ion Rocket E g e Rock l d n R pt R-645 1957 h. A Ehrick Ion P ulsio System or O bital Stab l izat of Sat l ite E p c lly of Set I S t l i t

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## Ionic crystals

A cl f cry tal wh b h th l t t e t oc p nts a t r g e d i n h i d i t g th p m a l y by the l i s t a t i n t r s S u h b d s a l l e d n e b i d g f m p l l s t a l s d i s g h d b y t g a b p t i n f i s r d t d i o n g o d n e e n d t i y a t h g h i m p e a t r e s l t h x t e n of p l e a l g w h h t h y t a l l a i l y

Comp nd f t n g l v l t r p o u a d t g l v l t o s t e e l m e n t t y p c a l l y form s o l d w h b a y t l s o e x m p l e th h l h i d i t r m f i n z m t a l h i d e s a d the l k a l e e r h h d e x i d e s n d u l f i d C r y t l s wh h s o m e of th n r c o m p l x h a m e t a b o a t e s m t a l t r t e s d

ammonium salt may al be cl ed as io ic crys tal

As a crys t l type i onic cry tals are t be d i s t i n g u i s h e d f r o m o t h e r t y p e s s u c h a s m o l e c u l a r c r y s t a l s a l e n e c r y s t a l o r m e t a l s The i d e a l i o n i c c r y s t a l a d e f i n e d s a p p r o c h e d m o t c l o e l y b y t h a l k a l i h a l d e s O t h e r c r y t l s l i t e n c l a s e d a s i o n i c h a e b i n d i g w h c h i s n t e x c l u s i v e l y i o n i c b u t i n c l u d e s a c e r t a n a d m i x t u r e o f c o v a l e n t b n d n g (s e e C H E M I C A L B I N D I C) T h s t e r m i o n i c c r y t a l r e f e r t o a n i d e a l z a t i o n t o w h i c h r e a l c r y s t a l c o r r e s p o n d t o a g r e a t e r o r l e s s e r d e g r e e a n d c r y t l s e i s t h a v i n g c h a r a c t e r i s t i c s o f m o r e t h a n o n e c r y s t a l t y p e

Because of the relative simplicity of ionic crys t l s e s p e c i a l l y the a l k a l i h a l d e s t h e r t h e r m a l m e c h a n e l o p t e l a n d e l e c t r i c l p r o p e r t i e s h a e b e n t h e s u b j e c t o f m u c h e x p e r i m e n t a l a n d t h e o r e t i c a l n e s i g a t i o n

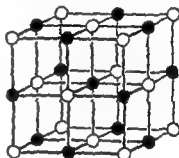


Fig 1 Sod m h l d latt (Aft F S I Th M d e Th ry of S l d M G w H l l 1940)

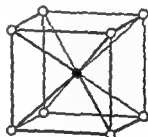


Fig 2 C e u m c h l d l t n (Aft F S d s Th M d Th ry f S l d M G w H l l 1940)

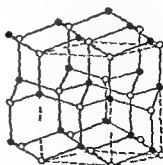


Fig 3 W u r t z i t n (Aft F S f z Th M o d Th ry f S l d M G w H l l 1940)



celerating electric field. In view of the fairly high boiling temperature, a high grid temperature (2800° F) is required. To avoid undue power loss by radiation over long propulsion periods, a proper geometric arrangement of the grid elements is necessary. In the acceleration chamber the (positive) ions are accelerated toward the cathode (Fig. 6).

The von Ardenne plasma ion source uses electric discharge to produce a neutral plasma. A strong magnetic field is employed to generate high plasma density thereby increasing the degree of ionization (Fig. 7). In the charged column system the fine droplets or dust particles must be produced first then must be ionized. The various possibilities of producing collides and accomplishing the ionization efficiently are not yet fully explored. S. ARDENNE COLLOIDS also SMOKER

The space charge represents one of the major obstacles of any ion-propulsion system. By adding a singly charged beam repulsion force, the force tends to diverge the beam. Therefore, the current density calls for fast beam acceleration. High voltage in a short accelerator. The Pasadena Division of North American Aviation reports current densities of  $\sim 20$  A/cm<sup>2</sup> at cesium 6000-volt acceleration and an arc length varying from 3 mm to a fraction of 1 cm. Although space charge limits ion beams to a density in the order of  $10^{11}$  ion/cm<sup>3</sup>, the charge efficiency is quite rapid neutralization of the beam after it has left the propulsion system. Continuous emission of ion charge would gradually charge the hull in the opposite direction and high speed rejection of the ions is required.

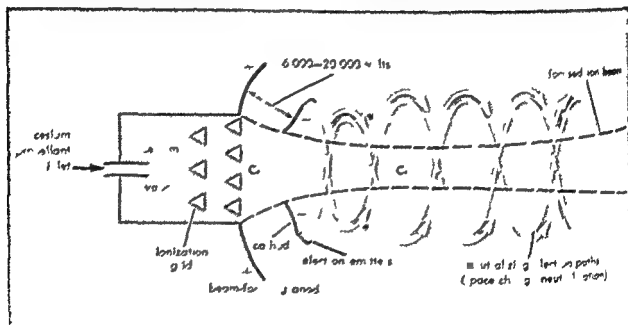


Fig. 6 Cesium ion thruster

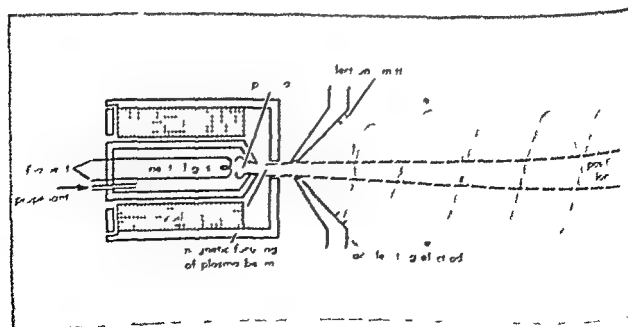


Fig. 7 Plasmatron ion thruster

cult F r u a t e l y t h f i e l d f a n i o n b e a m t r a c t s  
l e c t r o n s f n a r b y h t f i l a m e n t s t h e r e b y k e e p i n g  
t h e h c l n e u t r a l a n d p r o d n g t h e e l e c t r o n  
n e e d e d f o r p a e c h a g e n u t a l i z a t i o n T h e g e n e r a l  
a r r a n g e m e n t f i t h e l e c t r o n s u c a d d i r o i l  
t h e n g p t h t h r o u g h t h e l o w d e n s i t y o n b e a m u n d e r  
t h e m b e d e f f e c t o f t h e r o w n t h e r m a l v l t y  
(w h h i s i m p a r a b l t t h e e l c t y o f t h e i o n  
100 000-300 000 f t / e c ) a n d t h e a t t r a c t i n g e l e c t r i c  
f i e l d o f t h e i n b e m a r e s h o w n i n F i g 6

L o w i n m a s e s h i g h v o l t a g e a n d h o t c o e l a c e r a  
t i n c h a m b e a r e r e q u i r e d f o r h i g h c u r r e n t d e n s i  
t i e s O n t h e o t h e r h a n d f o r g e n e r a t i o n e l o c i t y  
(o r s p e c i f i c i m p u l s e ) h i g h t h r u t d e n s i t y r e q u i r e s  
l a g e i n m s E s p e c i a l l y f o r l o w r s p e c i f i c i m  
p u l s e e m p h a s i s i n h e a v y i o n s i f a l l w t h r u s t  
A i t y i s t o b e a d i d e d

T h s p e c i f i c i m p u l s e c a n n o t i m p l y b e e l c t e d t  
e a m a x i m u m b u t m u t h o p t i m e d e s a f u n c t i o n  
o f p u l s e m e n t a t i o n p r o p u l s i o n s y s t e m w e i g h t a n d  
t h e e f f i c i e n c y o f o n e r u g e l c i r c u i t a l p w e i n t o p w e r  
o f t h e e x h a u s t j e t F o r r o i n s t a n c e t o t h e m o o s p e c i f i c  
i m p u l s e s o f 3000-7000 e a r e r e q u i r e d f o r  
i o n s t a t i o n s i n V e n u s a n d M a r s s p e c i f i c i m p u l s e s f  
10 000-20 000 e a c t n e e d e d S p e c i f i c i m p u l s e s b e  
f o r d 0 000 s e c a e o f n t e e t n l y f r m s i n s t  
t h b o r d e r s o f o u r s a l a r s i t e m S e e E L E C T R O M A G N E T I C  
P R O P U L S I O N M A G N E T O C A S D Y N A M I C S N U  
C L E A R A I R C R A F T P R O P U L S I O N s f o I N T E R P L A N E  
T R A V E L P R O P U L S I O N [K A E]

B b l g r a p h y R H B o d n T h e I o R o c k e t  
F i g e R e c t e d y n e R e p t . R-645 1957 A A  
E h r i c k e l P o p l S y s t e m O b i t a l S a b l e  
e t a l o f S e l l e t s F p e c i a l l y o f S e r I S a l l e  
C l a s s i f y S m i l O b s e r v a t i o n s C o n a t A s t n a u t i c  
R e p t . A S M 2 p t 1 1957 H S S e i f e r t ( e d )  
S p a c e T e c h n o l o g y 1959 F S t u h l i n g D e n a n d  
p e r f o r m a n c e d a t a f a p a a h p w i t h i c p u l  
s y s t e m P e c d g f t h e E i g h t h l e n a  
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a n d R e t z S o m e p r o b l e m s i n p p l n  
s y s t e m s I R E T n s M i d u y E l e c t r o n i c s M I L-3  
t o 2 33 1959 M A d n e A w D e v e l o p  
m e n t s n A p p l d o d N l a P h y s i c A t m o  
s p e r e s h e E t b l T r a 758 1957

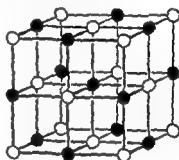
## Ionic crystals

A l s o f y t a l s i n w h i c h t h e l a t t i c e o f a n  
p l a c e h a d n e e d e d t o t h e r p m l y b y  
t h e l e t t i c e n e e m s u c h b n d g  
l l e d n b n d e m p l l m r y t l  
a d i g u h d b y c n g a h p t f n s a d  
d e t g o o d d e t z t h i g h t m p r  
t e s d t h i t e c f p l a l g w h h t h  
y t a l l e l y  
C o m p o d f s t o g l l t o p t v a d  
t o g l y e l e c t n g a s e l e m t t y p i c a l l y f r m  
s o l d h h a e c e t l f e x m p l t h  
a l k a l i d t h m o l n t m e t l h i d e  
a d t h a l k l e r t h h i d e s a d n d u l  
f i d C r y s t l s w h h o m e f t h a r m  
p l h m e t l b o a t m a l a n t t d

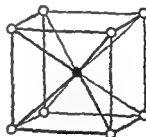
a m m o n i u m a l t s m a y a l o b e c l a s s i f i e d a s i o n i c c r y  
s t a l

A s a c r y s t a l t y p e i n c r y s t a l s a r e t o b e d i s  
t i n g u i s h e d f r o m o t h e r t y p e s s u c h a s m o l e c u l a r  
c r y s t a l l e n e c r y s t a l o r m e t a l s T h e i d e a l  
i o n i c c r y s t a l a s d e f i n e d i n a p p r o a c h e d m o r e c l o s e l y  
b y t h a l k a l i h a l d e s O t h e r c r y s t a l s o f t e n c l a s s e d  
a s i o n i c h a v e b i n d i n g w h i c h i n t e x c l u d e l y i n c  
b u t i n c l u d e s a c e r t a i n a d m i x t u r e o f c o a l e n t b i n d  
i n g ( s e e C H E M I C A L B I N D I N G ) T h u s t h e t e r m i o n i c  
c r y s t a l r e f e r s t o a n i d e a l i z a t i o n t o w h i c h r e a l c r y s  
t a l s c o r r e s p o n d t o a g r e a t e r o r l e s s e r d e g r e e a n d  
c r y s t a l s e x i s t h a v i n g c h a r a c t e r i s t i c s o f m o r e t h a n  
o n e c r y s t a l t y p e

B e c a u s e o f t h e r e l a t i v e s i m p l i c i t y o f i o n i c c r y s  
t a l s e s p e c i a l l y t h e a l k a l i h a l d e s t h e i r t h e r m a l  
m e c h a n i c a l o p t i c a l a n d e l e c t r i c a l p r o p e r t i e s h a v e  
b e e n t h e s u b j e c t o f m u c h e x p e r i m e n t a l a n d t h e o r e t i c a l i n v e s t i g a t i o n



F i g 1 S o d i u m C h l o r i d e ( A f t F S t T h M d T h y f  
S o l d M G w H I 1940)



F i g 2 C a l c i u m F l u o r i d e ( A f t F S t T h M d  
T h y f S o l d M G w H I 1940)



F i g 3 S o d i u m F l u o r i d e ( A f t F S t T h M d  
T h y f S o l d M G w H I 1940)

celerating electrostatic field. In view of the fairly high boiling temperature a high grid temperature (2200 F) is required. To avoid undue power losses by radiation over long propulsion periods a proper geometric arrangement of the grid elements is necessary. In the acceleration chamber the (positive) ions are accelerated toward the cathode (Fig. 6).

The von Ardenne plasma ion source uses electric discharge to produce a neutral plasma. A strong magnetic field is employed to generate high plasma density thereby increasing the degree of ionization (Fig. 7). In the charged colloid system the fine droplets or dust particles must be produced first then must be ionized. The various possibilities of producing colloids and accomplishing the ionization effectively are not yet fully explored. See AEROSOL COLLOID see also SMOKE.

The space charge represents one of the serious obstacles of any ion propulsion system. By producing a singly charged beam repulsive Coulomb forces tend to diverge the beam. Therefore, high current density calls for fast beam acceleration. A high voltage in a short accelerator. The Rocketdyne Division of North American Aviation has reported current densities of 3-20 ma/mm<sup>2</sup> with cesium 6000-volt acceleration and an acceleration length varying from 3 mm to a fraction of 1 m. Although space charge limits ion beams to a density in the order of  $10^9$ - $10^{10}$  ions/mm<sup>2</sup>, space charge effects require rapid neutralization of the beam after it has left the propulsion system. Continuous ejection of one charge would gradually charge the vehicle in the opposite direction, making high speed ejection of the ions increasingly difficult.

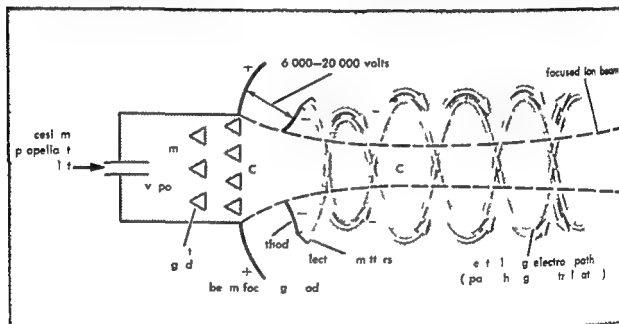


Fig. 6 Cesium thruster

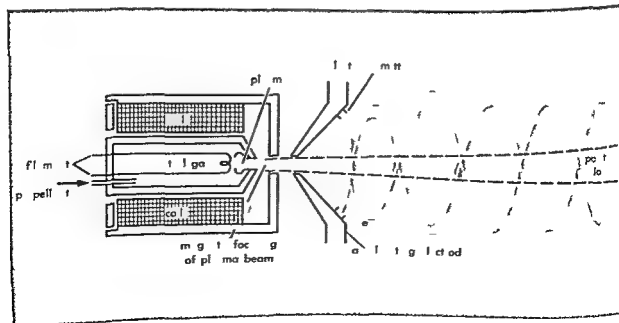


Fig. 7 Plasma ion thruster

the following number in the top of the Born  
 factor (A) and the time  $A$  is a mo  
 m g cou t te d [A] indic t s A m lid  
 state d The B with t br kt s step  
 (3) r fer to th n tu al f rm of B at th g en  
 mp ature nd p essu e The io i mp u d i  
 ken t b AB wh A i the el t opo tie  
 d B the el tr neg t e elem nt  
 Th tep f th B m Habe Cycle (ll tempe a  
 tures n k and p s res n tmo ph re)

1  $[AB]_P^0 \rightarrow [AB]_{P-1}^0$  The al f  $\Delta H_1$  in th s  
 th rm l mp n i ry mali and can be  
 n l ct d i mp r n with oth r he t e nt nt  
 ha es in the yel

2  $[AB]_P^0 \rightarrow [AB]_{P-1}^{298}$  In th step the crystal  
 r med i oom temper t r The al e of  $\Delta H$   
 can be l l ted f m th spe sific h at t e nstant  
 p e f th rystal

3  $[AB]_P^0 \rightarrow [4]_{P-1}^{298} + B_{P-1}^{298}$  The v l e of  
 $\Delta H$  g n by th h t f f m t n of the c m  
 po d AB h ch e f r ed to s b t n e s n the  
 n r l f r m t and d temper tu e and p essu  
 Se THERMOCHEMISTRY

4  $B_{P-1}^{298} \rightarrow (B)_P^{298}$  The l e f  $\Delta H$  the  
 d n n rgy c s y to f rm m n tom c  
 gas f m B i n t l stat i standard tempe  
 t nd p e s re F chlo des f e ampl th s  
 s th d s at n n gy f Cl<sub>2</sub> mol ul to Cl  
 t m

5  $[A]_P^{298} \rightarrow (A)_P^{298}$  I th s t p  $\Delta H_1$  s the  
 h t f bl m t n of th metal A It n bed ced  
 f m th he t f f i the pe sific t f th s l d,  
 l g d nd gas phas s nd th po p e s  
 d t a f r th m tal See SUBLIMATIO

6  $(4)_P^{298} \rightarrow (A)_P^0 (B)_P^{298} \rightarrow (B)_{P-1}^0$  An  
 d abatic pan n f th ga ns d ed as deal  
 t r y l g l m res lts n a stat wh h  
 $P=0$   $T=0$  and  $\Delta H = -\frac{3}{2}RT/m$  le wh R  
 th g tant

$(A)_P^0 \rightarrow (A)_P^0 + -$  The nizat n of the  
 A at m g s  $\Delta H$  pe t m p l t their first  
 stat ry

8  $(B)_P^0 + \rightarrow (B^-)_P^0$  Th l ctr ns fr m  
 tep (") a pl red the B toms Th alu of  
 $\Delta H$  pe at m n by the el t n affinity f th  
 B i m (see ELECTRO EC TIVITY)

As ample fo sodium hlo d  $\Delta H \cong 10^{-4}$   
 (k local res/m l)  $\Delta H = 2.4$   $\Delta H = 98.3$   $\Delta H =$   
 $6.0$   $\Delta H = 8.8$   $\Delta H = -2.9$   $\Delta H = 11.9$  and  
 $\Delta H = -80.5$  Experim tal e hes rges for  
 n mbe f the n r y t l ar g n s the  
 mpa g tabl See CHEM CAL STRUCTURES  
 B May q r By e f the B m Made  
 l g mod l the ch e i n c r v t l  
 n be l t d t t m ed mp b lity a d

# Cohesive en rgies

Cry t l	Stru t re	$U_{exp}$	$U_{calc}$	$U_{calc}$
		kcal/mol	kcal/mol	kcal/mol
LiCl	N Cl	91	196.3	90
LiBr	N Cl	191.5	181.4	189.5
LiI	N Cl	180.0	169.1	161
N Cl	N Cl	181.7	18.0	183.5
N B	N Cl	1.59	1	1.55
N I	N Cl	166.3	159.3	161.3
KCl	N Cl	16.8	265	167.9
AB	N Cl	161	158.3	161.3
Al	N Cl	15.8	148	15.4
RbCl	N Cl	163.6	191	16.0
RbBr	N Cl	159.0	119	156.1
RbI	N Cl	149.7	143.1	148.0
C F	F ont	618.0	617.7	
C Cl	Z bl d	63	66.1	
Z S	W tr t	8.1	816	
PbO	R t l	831	6.0	
AgCl	N Cl	97.5	187.3	

Th cohes gres th l t t w col m re cal  
 cul ted us g th Bo M y eq i d th ref ed  
 Bo M y theo y spect ly Th f d l i t  
 f th l t f y tals med h t bee m d

latic pa g B ca s of the opposite signs of  
 elect c h rg which they carry the unlk i n  
 i s ch a cry t l m del att act one an ther acc rd  
 i g to Co lombs law Howe er ch a charge  
 d t b t io n n t be n quilibrium if ly Cou  
 l mb f ce ct i addu t th r Coul mb  
 nt r s t i the i ex h bit a repul on wh ch  
 ompa ed with the Coulomb inter t aries  
 ap d ly with into i e pa at n The repuls on  
 be m st ng f r small separations and dimi  
 he r i d ly fo i rea ng eparat on The st t c  
 qu l br m c nfigu at i on of the cry tal d ter  
 m ned by a bal n e f these f r c of ttr tion  
 nd p l o

Th h r t a ge rep f on betw n ns m t be  
 des bed by q a t m mech nic Wh n the el i  
 t n b i f t w o n lap the l ctr harge  
 de ty th g n f erlap i dim nished a a  
 c seq ce of the Pul s clu on p n ple Th  
 ch rg ed t b t n re l t m pul i between  
 th s n add t t th Coul mb inte t on  
 which they ha e at all t e r on i d i t n e l  
 a ly w o k th e  $\epsilon V$  due to pul o of  
 two s t a d i t e r w ssum d t ha e th  
 f m

$$V_{re} = B/V$$

wh e B nd n a e tants to be d t e m d  
 Qu t m m h l l latio s f th inte ac  
 t o of at m with l ed shell f l t nd  
 ate that th t ct n f r puls n s bette  
 pp m t d by an exp ne t l dep dence i  
 nt c d t i

$$V_{re} = A/V$$

wh A d d p a e s t nts B th f r m f  
 l g almo t the am l l ted he i e n  
 g r th p t i f m g s l ghtly b t t  
 i m t with p m t

**Crystal structure** The simplest ionic crystal structures are those of the alkali halides. At standard temperature and pressure the 16 salts of Li, Na, K, and Rb with F, Cl, Br, and I have the sodium chloride structure of interpenetrating face centered cubic lattices (Fig 1).  $\text{CaF}_2$  has this structure but otherwise the cesium halides have the cesium chloride structure of interpenetrating simple cubic lattices (Fig 2). The sodium chloride structure is also assumed by the alkaline earth oxides, sulfides, and selenides other than those of Be and by  $\text{AgF}$ ,  $\text{AgCl}$ , and  $\text{AgBr}$ . Other crystal structures such as the wurtzite structure (Fig 3) assumed by  $\text{BeO}$ ,  $\beta\text{-ZnS}$ , and  $\text{ZnO}$  and the zinc blende structure (Fig 4) assumed by  $\text{CuCl}$ ,  $\text{CuBr}$ ,  $\text{CuI}$ ,  $\text{BeS}$ , and  $\alpha\text{-ZnS}$  are also typical of the ionic crystals of salts in which the atoms have equal positive and negative valence. Ionic compounds consisting of monovalent with divalent elements crystallize typically in the fluorite structure (Fig 5) assumed by  $\text{CaF}_2$ ,  $\text{BaF}_2$ ,  $\text{CdF}_2$ ,  $\text{UO}_2$ ,  $\text{Li}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}$ ,  $\text{Cu}_2\text{S}$ , and  $\text{Cu}_2\text{Se}$  or the rutile structure (Fig 6) assumed by  $\text{TiO}_2$ ,  $\text{ZnF}_2$ , and  $\text{MgF}_2$ . See CRYSTAL STRUCTURE.

**Cohesive energy** It is possible to understand many of the properties of ionic crystals on the basis of a simple model originally proposed by M. Born and E. Madelung. In the simplest form of this model the lattice site are occupied by spherically symmetric ions having charges corresponding to their normal chemical valence. The ions overlap only slightly; the ions at neighboring

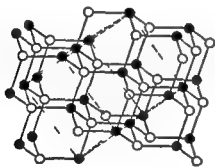


Fig 4 Zinc blende lattice (After F. Seitz, *The Modern Theory of Solids*, McGraw-Hill 1940)

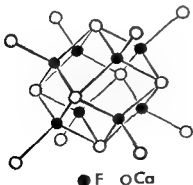


Fig 5 Calcium fluoride lattice (After F. Seitz, *The Modern Theory of Solids*, McGraw-Hill 1940)

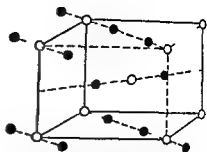


Fig 6 Rutile lattice (After F. Seitz, *The Modern Theory of Solids*, McGraw-Hill 1940)

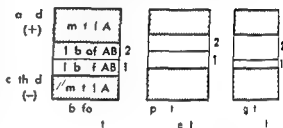


Fig 7 Empirical arrangement of ions for electrical conductivity

ions interact with one another through central forces. In  $\text{NaCl}$ , for example, the physically symmetric closed shell configuration which the free Na and Cl ions possess are considered to be negligibly altered by the crystalline environment and to have charges  $+e$  and  $-e$  respectively, where  $-e$  is the charge on the electron. Using this model together with certain assumptions about the forces between the ions, Born and Madelung calculated the cohesive energy of a number of ionic crystals. This cohesive energy is defined as the energy necessary to take an ionic crystal from an initial state in which the crystal is at 0 K, and zero pressure to a final state which is an infinitely dilute gas of its constituent ions at 0 K, and zero pressure. See COHESION (PHYSICS). While it cannot be measured directly, the cohesive energy can be deduced from experimental quantities by the use of the Born-Haber cycle. Thus the validity of the simple model of Born and Madelung can be tested by comparing the calculated cohesive energy of Born and Mayer with the experimentally determined values.

**Born-Haber cycle** This is a sequence of processes leading from the initial to the final state specified in the definition of the cohesive energy. Because in most of the processes in this cycle heat change at constant pressure are measured, it is convenient to consider the change in heat content or enthalpy  $H = U + PV$ , where  $P$  is the pressure,  $V$  is the volume, and  $U$  is the cohesive energy rather than the change in  $E$  in each step. Since the total change in  $H$  is independent of the intermediate steps taken to accomplish it, the  $\Delta H$  for the change in state specified in the definition of cohesive energy will be generally the sum of the  $\Delta H$  in the steps of the cycle. Furthermore, because when  $P = 0$ ,  $\Delta H = \Delta U$ , the  $\Delta H$  thus calculated will be the cohesive energy. In

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Using the exponential form for the repulsive interaction energy the potential energy  $\varphi(r_{ij})$  of a pair of ions  $i$  and  $j$  can be written

$$\varphi(r_{ij}) = \frac{Z_i Z_j e^2}{r_{ij}} + A e^{-U/r_{ij}}$$

where  $Z_i e$  and  $Z_j e$  are the net charges of the ions  $i$  and  $j$  and  $r_{ij}$  is the distance of separation of their centers. The assumption that the ions are spherically symmetric has been used here in writing the Coulomb interaction as that of point charges.

The cohesive energy  $U$  of an ionic crystal due to the Coulomb and repulsive interaction of its ions is the sum taken over all pairs of ions in the crystal

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \varphi(r_i)$$

where in the summation the lattice site indices  $i$  and  $j$  range over all sites of the crystal. The prime on the summation sign indicates the exclusion from the sum of terms for which  $i = j$  and the factor of  $1/2$  avoids counting pairs of ions twice.

For crystals in which there are only two types of ion the Coulomb or electrostatic part of  $U$  can be written in a simple form

$$U = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \frac{Z_i Z_j e^2}{r_{ij}} = - \frac{\lambda \alpha_M (Z_+ Z_-) e^2}{r}$$

where  $+Z e$  and  $-Z e$  are the charges of the positive and negative ions,  $N$  is the number of ion pairs in the crystal,  $r$  is the nearest neighbor separation, and  $\alpha_M$  is the Madelung constant. See **Madelung Constant**.

By anticipating that  $\rho$  will be small compared to the nearest neighbor separation the interactions of repulsion may be neglected for pairs of ions other than nearest neighbors. The energy of the crystal model for arbitrary nearest neighbor separation  $r$  is then

$$U(r) = N[-\alpha_M Z_+ Z_- e^2 / r + M A e^{-U/r}]$$

where  $M$  is the number of nearest neighbors which each ion has in the crystal.

The parameter  $\rho$  may be evaluated for a given crystal by requiring that (1)  $U$  be a minimum for the observed value of  $r$  and (2) that the compressibility of the model equal the measured compressibility of the crystal. It follows from the requirements that

$$U(r_0) = \lambda \alpha_M Z_+ Z_- (1 - \rho/r_0) e^2 / r_0$$

This is the Born-Mayer equation for the cohesive energy where  $r$  refers to the nearest neighbor distance at static equilibrium. Further in this equation  $\rho$  is given in terms of experimental quantities by

$$\frac{r_0}{\rho} = \frac{18 r_0^4}{11^2 K} + 2$$

where  $K$  is the measured compressibility of the crystal.

Cohesive energies for some alkali halides as crystals of other structures calculated in this way are shown in the accompanying table where they can be compared with the experimental values. The cohesive energy  $U$  is considered to be support for the essential validity of the Born-Mayer model. The model has been applied with some success even to the ammonium halides assuming spherically symmetric ions.

The Born-Mayer theory has been refined with resulting improvement in the agreement between the calculated and experimental cohesive energies for alkali halides. The refinements have considered the small (a few kilocalories per mole or less) corrections to the cohesive energy arising from Van der Waals interactions and zero-point vibrational energy. The Van der Waals forces are weak attractive forces between ions due to mutually induced fluctuating dipoles. Similar forces are weaker due to dipole-quadrupole interactions but have also been considered. Both the  $\pi$  interactions make small positive contributions to the cohesive energy. At 0 K the lattice is not in static equilibrium but as a consequence of quantum mechanics is in a state of zero-point vibration with non-zero energy. The energy of the vibrational modes can not be further reduced. The zero-point vibrational energy gives a small negative contribution to the cohesive energy. The results of the refinements are also shown in the table. See **Lattice Vibrations**.

While it has had success in calculating the cohesive energy, the shortcomings of the simple model become evident in its failure to predict correctly the elastic heat constants of ionic crystals. This requires interionic forces of a noncentral character which are absent from the model. There are also other instances in which the simple model is found to be inadequate.

**Ionic conductivity.** Just below their melting point ionic crystals have conductivities of the order of  $10^{-10}$  (ohm-cm). Below the melting point the conductivity falls rapidly with decreasing temperature. In a temperature range sufficiently near the melting point the temperature dependence of the conductivity  $\sigma$  is exponential and of the form  $\sigma = c e^{-\phi/T}$  where  $c$  and  $\phi$  are constants. In this so-called intrinsic range the conductivity is characteristic of the material and relatively unaffected by small concentrations of impurities and the previous thermal history of the crystal. At lower temperatures  $\sigma$  departs from the exponential behavior of the intrinsic region in a manner which does depend on impurities and history. For positive divalent impurities in alkali halides these departures have been extensively studied.

Ionic conductivity involves the transport of ions, as shown in experiments in which the deposit of metal from the ionic compound on the cathode is measured after the passing of current. Faraday's

to be flat plates but are in cylindrical or spherical shape. Commonly used ionization chambers have spherical metal walls and a smaller metal plate in the center. The walls are usually made of a material that maintains the ionization current.

If an ionization chamber is used to detect the ionization produced by a single particle, the error in measuring the count rate is extremely small. The current produced by a single particle of 3 Mev energy would produce about  $10^5$  positive ions.  $1.6 \times 10^{-19}$  coulombs of charge. An amplifier must be used to measure the current pulse so that the current becomes the rate of change of the capacitor. The rate of change of the capacitor is passed through a high resistance (Fig. 1) and the voltage generated by the current is then amplified by a low noise amplifier.

The pulse is then fed by the amplifier into a bag in the chamber. The bag takes a simple form which depends on the type of gas in the chamber. If the electrons that are knocked off the molecule rapidly attach to molecules of oxygen, producing negative ions. At the molecular level, the ions move slowly; the electric field because of the ion gas is compensated to electron. The positive ions move much faster than the electrons. The ions do not attach to the metal walls of the chamber. The ions move parallel with the electric field. The ions are collected by the positive plate. The collection time of the ions is about  $10^{-6}$  seconds. The ions are collected by the positive plate. The collection time of the ions is about  $10^{-6}$  seconds. The ions are collected by the positive plate. The collection time of the ions is about  $10^{-6}$  seconds.

Proportional counters are also used to detect ionizing radiation. They are similar to ionization chambers but the electric field is stronger. The ions are collected by the positive plate. The collection time of the ions is about  $10^{-6}$  seconds. The ions are collected by the positive plate. The collection time of the ions is about  $10^{-6}$  seconds.

Fission chambers are used to detect fission products. They are similar to ionization chambers but the electric field is stronger. The ions are collected by the positive plate. The collection time of the ions is about  $10^{-6}$  seconds. The ions are collected by the positive plate. The collection time of the ions is about  $10^{-6}$  seconds.

ments which can cause ionization in the gas. Not all the electrons entering such a chamber will make a count. Some of them will pass through the chamber without entering a nucleus of the fissionable material. Others may produce fission but the fission fragments being of limited range may remain in the lead material. Fission chambers always have a high background or a particle counter because the fissionable material is radioactive. [War]

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# Ionization gage

An instrument for measuring vacuum by ionizing gas and measuring the current. See VACUUM MEASUREMENT. Ionization gages may be classified by the method used to ionize the gas.

In the hot filament ionization gage, electrons emitted by an incandescent filament are attracted toward a positively charged grid electrode. Collisions of electrons with gas molecules produce ions. The ions are attracted to the negatively charged electrode. The number of ions is a measure of the pressure (pressure).

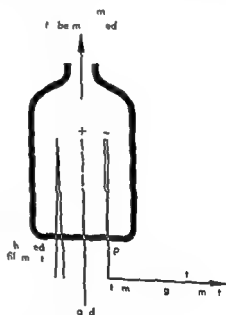


Fig. 1 Hot filament ionization gage

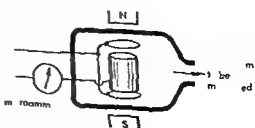


Fig. 2 Cold cathode ionization gage



## Ionization

The process by which an electron is removed from an atom molecule or ion. This process is of basic importance to electrical conduction in gases and liquids. In the simplest case ionization may be thought of as a transition between an initial state consisting of a neutral atom and a final state consisting of a positive ion and a free electron. In more complicated cases a molecule may be converted to a heavy positive ion and a heavy negative ion which are separated.

Ionization may be accomplished by various means. For example a free electron may collide with a bound atomic electron. If sufficient energy can be exchanged the atomic electron may be liberated and both electrons separated from the residual positive ion. The incident particle could as well be a positive ion. In this case the reaction may be considerably more complicated but may again result in a free electron. Another case of considerable importance is the photoelectric effect. Here a photon interacts with a bound electron. If the photon has sufficient energy the electron may be removed from the atom. The photon is annihilated in the process. Other methods of ionization include thermal processes, chemical reactions, collisions of the second kind and collisions with neutral molecules or atoms. See ELECTRICAL CONDUCTION IN GASES, ELECTRODE POTENTIAL. [C. H. M.]

## Ionization chamber

An instrument used to determine the ionization produced by fast moving charged particles. Ionization chambers are a type of particle detector and may be used in cosmic ray research in nuclear physics or as radiation survey instruments which indicate the level of intensity of radiation at a point. See PARTICLE DETECTOR.

When a charged particle moves through a gas it may pass near enough to an atom in the gas to remove an electron from the atom by the process of electrical attraction or repulsion. This is called ionization of the gas atom. Left behind are the negatively charged electron and the atom, the latter with a net positive charge. The function of the ionization chamber is to measure the total amount of charge separated in this way by the passage of the charged particle.

Ionization chambers are constructed with two electrodes across which an electrical potential is placed. The negative charge produced in the gas moves toward the positive electrode and the positively charged ions move toward the negative electrode. The current of moving charges is measured to give the total ionization produced in the gas.

**General types.** Ionization chambers are of two general types: those used to detect radiations from radioactive substances placed directly in the chamber and those used for detection of higher energy particles originating outside the chamber such as those from a particle accelerator. In the first category

$\alpha$  particles from naturally radioactive substances are usually detected by placing the substance in a parallel plate chamber directly on one of the plates. The pressure of the gas is adjusted so that the  $\alpha$  particles are stopped before they reach the opposite plate. Such a counter gives information on the half life of the material or on the amount of active material present if the half life is known. An ionization chamber used to detect  $\beta$  rays (electrons) from radioactive substances must be much more sensitive than an  $\alpha$  particle counter because the specific ionization produced is much smaller. Usually either a proportional counter or Geiger Muller counter is used to detect  $\beta$  rays (see GEIGER MULLER COUNTER). Ionization chambers have been used however to detect electrons and other singly charged fast moving particles from particle accelerators or cosmic rays. In this application the gas must be carefully purified and the amplifiers must be of high gain and well stabilized.

**Electroscopes.** The simplest ionization chamber is the gold leaf electroscope in which measurement of the angular deflection of two gold leaves in a gas filled container indicates the ionization produced in the gas (see ELECTROSCOPE). Ionization chambers based on this general idea are widely used as indicators of charged particle radiation. They are made in small sizes for convenience (they are often shaped like a fountain pen) and are carried by people who work near sources of radiation. See MONITORING (IONIZING RADIATION).

**Current measurement.** For accurate measurements of ionization it is necessary to measure the actual current produced. A pair of metal plates, mounted in a chamber that contains the gas in which the ionization is produced, is connected to a battery and current measuring meter as shown in Fig. 1. The ions produced in the gas are separated by the electric field and the current of ions is measured by the meter. The metal electrodes need

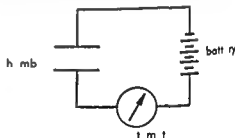


Fig 1 Ionization chamber circuit

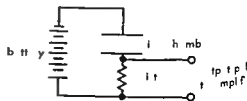


Fig 2 Pulse ionization chamber circuit



The hot filament gage is most useful at pressures less than 1 micron ( $\mu$ ). Use is limited because the filament will burn out if the pressure rises much above 10  $\mu$ . Unwanted chemical reactions or adsorption may take place on the heated surface.

In the cold cathode (Philips) ionization gage a high voltage is applied between two electrodes. Fewer electrons are emitted but a strong magnetic field deflects the electron stream, increasing the length of the electron path and thus increasing the chance for ionizing collisions of electrons with gas molecules. This type is widely used for pressures of 0.01–10  $\mu$ .

In another type of ionization gage the gas is ionized by high energy alpha particles emitted by a radioactive source such as radium.

All ionization gages must be calibrated for the gas to be measured because different gases have different ionizing properties. Accuracy of 10% of full scale value is attainable. [B. H. H. C. P.]

## Ionization potential

The potential difference through which a bound electron must be raised to free it from the atom or molecule to which it is attached. In particular the ionization potential is the difference in potential between the initial state in which the electron is bound and the final state in which it is at rest at infinity.

The concept of ionization potential is closely associated with the Bohr theory of the atom. Although the simple theory is applicable only to hydrogenlike atoms, the picture furnished by it conveys the idea quite well. In this theory the allowed energy levels for the electron are given by

$$E = -k/n^2 \quad n = 1, 2, 3$$

Here  $E$  is the energy of the state described by  $n$ . The constant  $k$  is about 13.6 electron volts for atomic hydrogen. The energy approaches zero as  $n$  becomes infinite. Thus zero energy is associated with the free electron. On the other hand, the most tightly bound case is given by setting  $n$  equal to unity. By the definition given above, the ionization potential for the most tightly bound or ground state is then 13.6 electron volts. The ionization potential for any excited state is obtained by substituting  $E$  for the particular value of  $n$  associated with that state. For a further discussion of the energy levels of an atom, see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA. ELECTRON VOLT.

The ionization potential for the removal of an electron from a neutral atom other than hydrogen is more correctly designated as the first ionization potential. The potential associated with the removal of a second electron from a singly ionized atom or molecule is then the second ionization potential, and so on.

Ionization potentials may be measured in a number of ways. The most accurate measurement is obtained from spectroscopic methods. The transitions between energy states are accompanied by the

emission or absorption of radiation. The wavelength of this radiation is a measure of the energy difference. The particular transitions that have a common final energy state are called a series. The series limit represents the transition from the free electron state to the particular state common to the series. The energy associated with the series limit transition is the ionization energy.

Another method of measuring ionization potentials is by electron impact. Here the minimum energy needed for a free electron to ionize in a collision is determined. The accuracy of this type of measurement cannot approach that of the spectroscopic method. See CHEMICAL STRUCTURES. ELECTRON CONFIGURATION. ELECTRONEGATIVITY. [C. H. M.]

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## Ionosphere

A succession of electrically charged (ionized) layers in the earth's atmosphere above the troposphere and stratosphere zones. In the tenuous outer fringes of the earth's atmosphere, incoming radiations from the sun ionize the gases present. The free electrons thus made available render the outermost portions of the earth's atmosphere electrically conducting. This part of the atmosphere is known as the ionosphere and extends from a height of about 60–80 kilometers (km) up to heights in excess of 1000 km.

**Bases of the concept** The existence of the ionosphere was first suspected from studies of the small variations that occurred in the earth's magnetic field. These could be explained in terms of electric currents in an electrically conducting upper atmosphere. The existence of the ionosphere became much more certain, however, after Marconi had succeeded in transmitting radio waves across the Atlantic. Some means were required to explain how the radio waves managed to surmount the curvature of the earth. The possibility that an electrically conducting ionosphere could act as a mirror for radio waves was the most obvious explanation of Marconi's observations. During the 1920s experiments were made to detect the existence of the ionosphere by what would now be called radar techniques. In this way the existence of the ionosphere was independently established by E. V. Appleton and M. A. F. Barnett in England and by G. Breit and M. A. Tuve in the United States. In the early experiments, reflection of radio waves is obtained from what is known as the E region of the ionosphere at a height of about 100 km. Later experiments at higher radio frequencies showed that it is possible to penetrate the E region of the ionosphere and that reflection is then obtained from a higher region known as the F region at heights varying from 200 to 500 km. At still higher radio frequencies, even the F region is penetrated without

membrane will exceed the other by the concentration of the counter ions. Therefore the proportion of any electrical current crossing the membrane carried by the ions of the most numerous charge type may be very high and the electrical mass transfer of these ions in the direction of the oppositely charged electrode correspondingly high. Membranes whose fixed charges are negative and counter ions positive are under an electrical potential preferentially permeable to cations, those having positive fixed charges and negative counter ions are preferentially permeable to anions.

The electrical transport number of one charge type of ion in a membrane depends on the electrolyte concentration of the surrounding solution in equilibrium with the membrane. This is a necessary consequence of the Donnan membrane theory and leads to the important practical consequence that the selective ionic permeability of the membrane decreases as the external electrolyte concentration increases. At sufficiently high concentrations the membrane will have no electrolytic selectivity and will serve simply as a diffusion barrier. Membranes with the highest fixed charge concentration will be selective at the highest external concentration.

In addition to the electrical transport of ions across ion permeable membranes, electroosmotic transport of water or solvent also takes place with the net transport being in the direction of the counter ion movement. The amount of water transported per faraday will depend on the properties of the ions simultaneously transported and on their transport numbers in the membrane. Thus the net water transport is a maximum at low external solution concentrations.

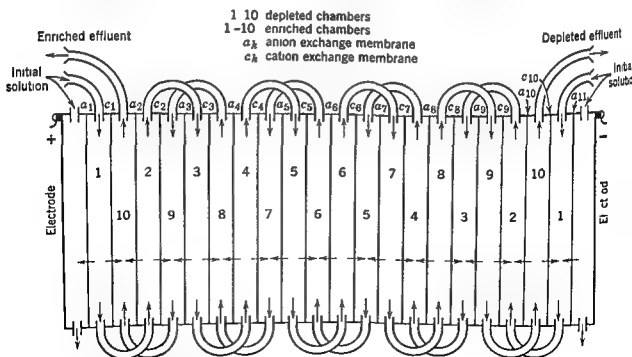
Measurement of transport numbers within the membranes can be made by direct measurement of ionic transport in electrolytic cells or by measurement of membrane potentials across a membrane separating solutions of known and different electrolyte concentration. The departure of the measured potential from the ideal Nernst potential is a measure of the transport number of the counter ions in the membrane.

**Membranes** The physical properties of ion permeable membranes vary considerably. Ideally they should be tough and flexible, readily hydrated, yet good diffusion barriers. Practical membranes for electrodialysis should have low resistivity and are usually less than 0.025 in. thick. For analytical measurement of ionic activities, low resistivity is not essential. The membranes may be of heterogeneous or homogeneous physical structure and may be internally supported by inert material.

The principle application of ion permeable membranes is to electrodialytic deionization using electrolytic cells having multiple compartments separated by the membranes, as shown in the illustration.

Membranes labeled  $a_1$  are preferentially permeable to anions, and those labeled  $c_1$  are preferentially permeable to cations. Under an applied potential the ions in compartments 1, 2, 10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 will migrate through the ion permeable membranes toward the electrodes into compartments 1, 2, 10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1.

Hence alternate compartments will be depleted and the others enriched as electrical current flows. The alternate compartments may be joined as shown, the current traversing the continuous streams  $n$  times where  $n$  is the number of unit cells. A unit cell is defined as consisting of



Schematic diagram of multiple ion exchange membrane electrodialysis cell. Small horizontal arrows indicate movement of ions between compartments.

membrane will exceed the other by the concentration of the counter ions. Therefore the proportion of any electrical current crossing the membrane carried by the ions of the most numerous charge type may be very high and the electrical mass transfer of these ions in the direction of the oppositely charged electrode correspondingly high. Membranes whose fixed charges are negative and counter ions positive are under an electrical potential preferentially permeable to cations; those having positive fixed charges and negative counter ions are preferentially permeable to anions.

The electrical transport number of one charge type of ion in a membrane depends on the electrolyte concentration of the surrounding solution in equilibrium with the membrane. This is a necessary consequence of the Donnan membrane theory and leads to the important practical consequence that the selective ionic permeability of the membrane decreases as the external electrolyte concentration increases. At sufficiently high concentrations the membrane will have no electrolytic selectivity and will serve simply as a diffusion barrier. Membranes with the highest fixed charge concentration will be selective at the highest external concentration.

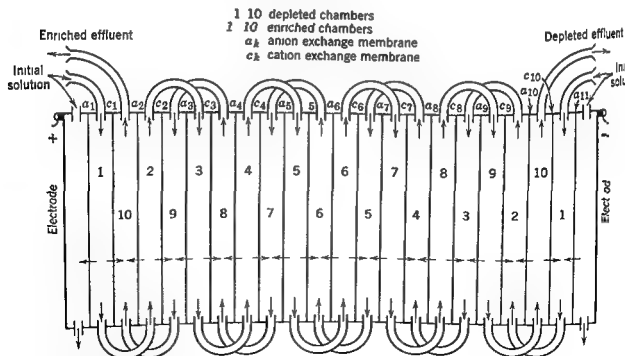
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Schematic diagram of multiple-chamber electrodialytic still for total water demineralization of ions between compartments

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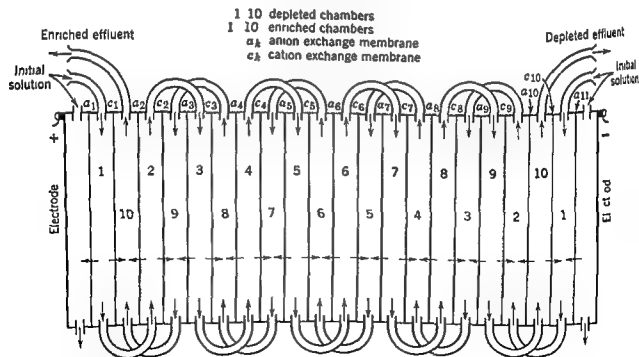
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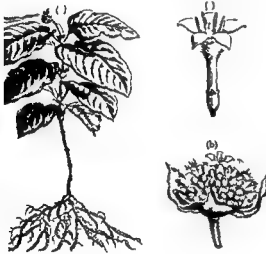
Schematic diagram of multiple compartment electro dialysis cell. Small horizontal arrows indicate movement of water between compartments.

d chamber and an adjacent concentric  
ber with the r r d i g an on perme ble  
cat n p r m e a b l m m b a n e The lectr de  
bers a e f i d e p e d e n t l y to keep the l c  
e c t i n p r o d u c t f r m the c  
t e d d p l e t d l e c t r l y t e t r e a m S e D i  
ELECTROLYTIC CO DUCTANCE FLECTROPHO-  
SALI E W A T R R E C L A M A T I O

bl o g a p h y R. k n n f o E h a g R e s n s  
d 19 8 F C. N a b o d a d J S h u b e r t ( d )  
E x h a g e T e c h l g y 1956

### cac

w p e a n n a l h r u b h a l f h r u b f t e t r p c a l  
t i n B a n i a n d C o l m b a. S e r l p e i s a e  
d b t t e d e d r u s n d r h i z o m e s o f C e p h l i s



l p (C p h l m c h ) ( ) E n t p l t (b) l n -  
A s c ( ) S g l A w (F o m A J K  
M l T h N t I H s t r y f l p l t H l )

p h a t t i t h m t e l e c o g z e d a s  
t h f i l d g. p e c M e d a l l y n s e d p i  
p l l y a s a m e t c a d e p e c t o a n t S R U B I A L E S  
[P n s]

### IR drop

T h p o t u l d p d t t a n e r a y  
p l m t ( w h h t f l e t r o m  
t f ) a n l e c t r t. T h p o t e t l  
d p b y d f i t t h e p o d c t o f t h r t e  
R o f t h l m t d t h t f l g t h u g h  
T h I R d p e s t t a t h d f f e c  
f p o t t i l b e t e e t h e t w e d o f t h r e c t r  
l m p l d e c t - c u n t c m t a i g  
b a t t r y a d n m b e r f e t a, t h e u m f l l  
t h I R d m d t h e r t ( i d g t h a t f  
t h i r m l t n e f t h l a t t y t e l l ) u s  
e q i t t h f e c t m t e f e f t h b u y  
T h m p o r t t t h m s e f l t h  
l y t s o l t i f l e c t r l t w k a.

[J W. S Y]

### Iridium

Chemical element number 77 iridium Ir in the  
free state s a h a d w h i t e m e t a l l i c s u b s t a n c e

Uses At o d i n a r y t i m p e a t e s, i r i d i u m I r i s t h e  
m s t o r o n e s t a n t l e m e t a l k n o w n I t i s u s e d  
f e r y h i g h t m p r t u r e c r u b l e s p e t i g i n  
n o x i d i z i n g a m p h e r f o f r u a e w i n d i n g s,  
a d a a n a l l y n g e l e m e n t t o t e g h e n p l t i n m  
Chemical and physical properties The atomic  
n m b e f r i d i u m 77 a t o m i c w e i g h t 192.22, d n  
t y 22.54 g/cm m e l t i n g p t 2443 C, b o i l i n g  
p o n t 5300 C, n d l c t c l r i s t t y 5.3  
m u r h m p e c n t m e t e r t 0 C. R a d o c t e s o  
t p e f i t h f l l w i n g m s n m b a e k n w n  
187 188 189 190 192, 194 195 196 197 and 198  
The t a b l e o f i s o t o p e s o f i r d i u m h a v e t h e m m n u m  
b e 191 d 193 T h e n a t r l b u d s o f t h e e  
r 38.5 n d 61.5% p e c t l y I r i d i u m i n t  
t a k e d b y a y i d i l u d i g a q a e g a A 30%  
i r i d i u m p l t i n a l l o y p r a c t i c l y n l u b l e i n  
q u e s r y t o c e r t i r i d i u m t o a s o l u b l e f o r m  
D i s o l u t i o n o f i r d i u m m a y l o b e a c o m p l e d  
b y f u g t w i t h s o d i m h l o d e w i t h t r e t i n g t h e  
m l t w i t h h l i T h e t e m e n t s o f i r d i  
u m r i c h l l y s e a t e p r b l e m s t h e a n l y s i s  
a d r e f i n i n g I r i d i u m h i t s a l c e t a t e s f l +  
2+ 3+ 4+ n d p b b l y 5+ d 6+ T h 3+  
a d 4+ l s a r e t h e m t m m I r i d i u m  
h t r o g e d e n c y t o f r m c d n a t n e m  
p d s

Metallurgical extraction O m d u m b i a n e d  
n t h e t t n f l p l u m s f u e d w i t h z n c a n d  
s u b j e t t l y d g t e d w i t h h y d r h l r e a d t  
n e r t t h e m t i l t o a f i p w d T h s p o w d e  
s t h f e d w i t h a n l k l o x i d i z i n g f l u x w h c h  
n e r t s t h d u m t n a d s o l u b l f o r m T h  
p o c e d e s e l y q u a n t i t s o t h a t t h n s o l u  
h l e d e m t b r e c y l e d V a r i s h y d r l y t  
s e p r t i l b l t p a r a t e t h e i r i d i m  
f m t h r m t l O f t t h m l b i l i t y o f d m  
i n l e d e d t p a r a t i f r o m o t h r p e c i u s  
m t a l T h r e l a t e l u b l i t y f a m m n u m  
h l d a t w t m y l o b e d t f f e c t  
s e p a r a t i o n. W h e n h e t e d t h o m p d y l d m  
t l l i d m S e p a r a t e n o t q u a n t i t  
t h l g i b y c y c l g o f t a l i g s e q u i d

**Principal compounds** Iridium trichloride  $\text{IrCl}_3$  is a green water insoluble compound made by treating iridium powder with chlorine at 500 C Sodium iridium(IV) chloride  $\text{NaIrCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is a black water soluble crystalline solid made by heating a fused mixture of iridium and osmium chloride in chlorine and then dissolving the resulting melt in water Sodium iridium(III) chloride  $\text{Na}_3\text{IrCl}_6 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is an olive green water soluble crystalline solid made by reducing a solution of sodium iridium(IV) chloride Ammonium iridium(IV) chloride  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{IrCl}_6$  is a red black relatively insoluble crystalline solid made by adding ammonium chloride to a solution of sodium iridium(IV) chloride Iridium trihydroxide  $\text{Ir}(\text{OH})_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is a green black insoluble solid made by hydrolyzing a solution of iridium(III) chloride

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For a discussion of the natural occurrence metallurgical extraction and alloys of iridium see PLATINUM see also OSMIUM RHODIUM [E A H A]

## Iron

Chemical element number 26 iron Fe is the fourth most abundant element of the earth's crust (5%) It is a malleable tough silver gray magnetic metal It melts at 1540 C boils at 2800 C and has a

density of 7.86 g/cm<sup>3</sup> The atomic weight is 55.85 each atom has 26 electrons and the four stable naturally occurring isotopes have masses of 54, 56, 57, and 58 The two main ores are hematite  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  and limonite  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$  other ores are magnetite  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ , taconite (an iron silicate) and siderite  $\text{FeCO}_3$  Pyrites  $\text{FeS}_2$  and chromite  $\text{Fe}(\text{CrO}_2)_2$  are mined as ores for sulfur and chromium respectively Iron is also found in many other minerals and it occurs in ground waters and in the red hemoglobin of blood

The greatest use of iron is for structural steel, cast iron and wrought iron are made in quantity also Magnets dyes (inks blueprint paper rouge pigments) and abrasives (rouge) are among the other uses of iron and iron compound

The free metal is obtained in bulk by reduction of the ore by coke Pure iron is difficult to obtain because other elements are held tenaciously a pure material may however be obtained by reduction of the oxide with hydrogen or by electrolysis The chemistry of the zero oxidation state is chiefly that of the alloys addition of trace impurities (carbon, phosphorus silicon nickel manganese chromium, and cobalt) has a marked effect on the properties of the metal See CAST IRON HEAT TREATMENT (METALS AND ALLOYS) IRON (EXTRACTION FROM ORE) IRON ALLOYS STAINLESS STEEL STEEL MANUFACTURE WROUGHT IRON

**Properties of the metal** There are several allotropic forms of iron Ferrite or  $\alpha$  iron is stable up to 760 C The change to  $\beta$  iron involves primarily a loss of magnetic permeability because the lattice structure (body centered cubic) is unchanged The allotrope called  $\gamma$  iron has the cubic close-packed arrangement of atoms and is stable from 910 to 1400 C Little is known about  $\delta$  iron except that it is stable above 1400 C and has a lattice similar to that of  $\alpha$  iron

The metal is a good reducing agent and depending on conditions can be oxidized to the 2+ 3+ or 6+ state In most iron compounds the ferrous ion iron (II) or ferric ion iron (III) is present as a distinct unit Iron (II) is found in simple compounds such as  $\text{FeO}$ ,  $\text{FeS}$ ,  $\text{FeBr}_2$  and  $\text{FeCO}$  and in hydrated compounds such as  $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{FeF}_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{FeCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and ferrous acetate tetrahydrate Ferrous sulfate and ferrous ammonium sulfate (Mohr's salt)  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  have been employed as standards for oxidimetric titrations The oxide  $\text{FeO}$  and hydroxide  $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_2$  are quite basic they react with strong and weak acids to form salts The ferrous compounds are usually light yellow to dark green brown in color the hydrated ion  $\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{2+}$  which is found in many compounds and in solution is light green This ion has little tendency to form coordination complexes except with strong reagents such as cyanide ion polyamines and porphyrin

Oxidation of ferrous ion to ferric ion is moderately difficult in acid solution but occurs readily in basic solution because of the insolubility of ferric hydroxide The electrode potential for the ferrous-ferric reaction is dependent on the complexing species present in the solution Anions such as  $\text{CN}^-$ ,  $\text{F}^-$  and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  stabilize the 3+ oxidation state whereas amine such as phenanthroline stabilize the 2+ state

**Coordination compounds** The ferric ion because of its high charge (3+) and its small size (0.53 Å as compared with 0.75 Å for ferrous ion) has a strong tendency to hold anions Ferric hydroxide is only weakly basic Salts are formed with



**Principal compounds** Iridium trichloride  $\text{IrCl}_3$  is a green water insoluble compound made by treating iridium powder with chlorine at 500 C. Sodium iridium(IV) chloride  $\text{Na}_2\text{IrCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is a black water soluble crystalline solid made by heating a fused mixture of iridium and sodium chloride in chlorine and then dissolving the resulting melt in water. Sodium iridium(III) chloride  $\text{Na}_3\text{IrCl}_6 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is an olive green water soluble crystalline solid made by reducing a solution of sodium iridium(IV) chloride. Ammonium iridium(IV) chloride  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{IrCl}_6$  is a red black relatively insoluble crystalline solid made by adding ammonium chloride to a solution of sodium iridium(IV) chloride. Iridium trihydroxide  $\text{Ir}(\text{OH})_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is a green black insoluble solid made by hydrolyzing a solution of iridium(III) chloride.

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For a discussion of the natural occurrence, metallurgical extraction, and alloys of iridium see PLATINUM; see also OSMIUM; RHODIUM; [EARTH]

## Iron

Chemical element number 26, iron, Fe, is the fourth most abundant element of the earth's crust (5.6%). It is a malleable, tough, silver gray magnetic metal. It melts at 1540 C, boils at 2800 C, and has a

density of 7.86 g/cm<sup>3</sup>. The atomic weight is 55.85; each atom has 26 electrons, and the four stable naturally occurring isotopes have mass numbers of 54, 56, 57, and 58. The two main ores are hematite,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ , and limonite,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ; other ores are magnetite,  $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ; taconite (an iron silicate); and siderite,  $\text{FeCO}_3$ . Pyrites,  $\text{FeS}$ , and chromite,  $\text{Fe}(\text{CrO}_2)_2$ , are mined as ores for sulfur and chromium, respectively. Iron is also found in many other minerals, and it occurs in ground waters and in the red hemoglobin of blood.

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The free metal is obtained in bulk by reduction of the ore by coke. Pure iron is difficult to obtain because other elements are held tenaciously; a pure material may however be obtained by reduction of the oxide with hydrogen or by electrolysis. The chemistry of the zero oxidation state is chiefly that of the alloys; addition of trace impurities (carbon, phosphorus, silicon, nickel, manganese, chromium, and cobalt) has a marked effect on the properties of the metal. See CAST IRON; HEAT TREATMENT (METALS AND ALLOYS); IRON (EXTRACTION FROM ORE); IRON ALLOYS; STAINLESS STEEL; STEEL MANUFACTURE; WROUGHT IRON.

**Properties of the metal** There are several allotropic forms of iron. Ferrite or  $\alpha$  iron is stable up to 760 C. The change to  $\beta$  iron involves primarily a loss of magnetic permeability because the lattice structure (body centered cubic) is unchanged. The allotrope called  $\gamma$  iron has the cubic close packed arrangement of atoms and is stable from 910 to 1400 C. Little is known about  $\delta$  iron except that it is stable above 1400 C and has a lattice similar to that of  $\alpha$  iron.

The metal is a good reducing agent and depending on conditions can be oxidized to the 2+, 3+, or 6+ state. In most iron compounds the ferrous ion, iron(II), or ferric ion, iron(III), is present as a distinct unit. Iron(II) is found in simple compounds such as  $\text{FeO}$ ,  $\text{FeS}$ ,  $\text{FeBr}_2$ , and  $\text{FeCO}_3$  and in hydrated compounds such as  $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{FeF}_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{FeCl}_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and ferrous acetate tetrahydrate. Ferrous sulfate and ferrous ammonium sulfate (Mohr's salt),  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot \text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , have been employed as standards for oxidimetric titrations. The oxide,  $\text{FeO}$ , and hydroxide,  $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_2$ , are quite basic; they react with strong and weak acids to form salts. The ferrous compounds are usually light yellow to dark green brown in color; the hydrated ion,  $\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{2+}$ , which is found in many compounds and in solution is light green. This ion has little tendency to form coordination complexes except with strong reagents such as cyanide ion, polyamines, and porphyrins.

Oxidation of ferrous ion to ferric ion is moderately difficult in a solution but occurs readily in basic solution because of the insolubility of ferric hydroxide. The electrode potential for the ferric/ferrous reaction is dependent on the complexing species present in the solution. Anions such as  $\text{CN}^-$ ,  $\text{F}^-$ , and  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  stabilize the 3+ oxidation state, whereas amines such as phenanthroline stabilize the 2+ state.

**Coordination compounds** The ferric ion because of its high charge (3+) and its small size (0.53 Å as compared with 0.75 Å for ferrous ion) has a strong tendency to bind ligands. Ferric hydroxide is only weakly basic. Salts are formed with

**Principal compounds** Iridium trichloride  $\text{IrCl}_3$  is a green water insoluble compound made by treating iridium powder with chlorine at 500 C Sodium iridium(IV) chloride  $\text{Na IrCl}_6 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is a black water soluble crystalline solid made by heating a fused mixture of iridium and sodium chloride in chlorine and then dissolving the resulting melt in water Sodium iridium(III) chloride  $\text{Na}_3\text{IrCl}_6 \cdot 12\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is an olive green water soluble crystalline solid made by reducing a solution of sodium iridium(IV) chloride Ammonium iridium(IV) chloride  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{IrCl}_6$  is a red black relatively insoluble crystalline solid made by adding ammonium chloride to a solution of sodium iridium(IV) chloride Iridium trihydroxide  $\text{Ir}(\text{OH})_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is a green black insoluble solid made by hydrolyzing a solution of iridium(III) chloride

**Analytical techniques** The separation and determination of iridium is the most difficult procedure in the analyses for precious metals For a discussion of sample preparation see SOLUBILIZING OF SAMPLES The 4+ valence state may be titrated to the 3+ valence state by the use of hydroquinone or ascorbic acid as a reducing agent Colorimetric methods using the color of iridium(IV) chloride are also used Iridium can be precipitated as the sulfide ignited to the oxide reduced to the metal in hydrogen and then weighed directly

For a discussion of the natural occurrence metallurgical extraction and alloys of iridium see PLATINUM see also OSMIUM RHODIUM [E A H A]

## Iron

Chemical element number 26 iron Fe is the fourth most abundant element of the earth's crust (5%) It is a malleable tough silver gray magnetic metal It melts at 1540 C boils at 2800 C and has a

1	2																	18	19	20
H	He																	Ar	K	Ca
3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20			
Li	Be	B	C	N	O	F	Ne	Na	Mg	Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar	K	Ca			
21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38			
Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr	Rb	Sr			
39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56			
Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe	Ba	La			
57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71	72	73	74			
La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu						

LANTHANUM 57

70 71 72 73 74 75 76 77 78 79 80 81 82 83 84 85 86 87 88 89 90 91 92 93 94 95 96 97 98 99 100 101 102 103 104 105 106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 125 126 127 128 129 130 131 132 133 134 135 136 137 138 139 140 141 142 143 144 145 146 147 148 149 150 151 152 153 154 155 156 157 158 159 160 161 162 163 164 165 166 167 168 169 170 171 172 173 174 175 176 177 178 179 180 181 182 183 184 185 186 187 188 189 190 191 192 193 194 195 196 197 198 199 200 201 202 203 204 205 206 207 208 209 210 211 212 213 214 215 216 217 218 219 220 221 222 223 224 225 226 227 228 229 230 231 232 233 234 235 236 237 238 239 240 241 242 243 244 245 246 247 248 249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257 258 259 260 261 262 263 264 265 266 267 268 269 270 271 272 273 274 275 276 277 278 279 280 281 282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289 290 291 292 293 294 295 296 297 298 299 300 301 302 303 304 305 306 307 308 309 310 311 312 313 314 315 316 317 318 319 320 321 322 323 324 325 326 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577 578 579 580 581 582 583 584 585 586 587 588 589 590 591 592 593 594 595 596 597 598 599 600 601 602 603 604 605 606 607 608 609 610 611 612 613 614 615 616 617 618 619 620 621 622 623 624 625 626 627 628 629 630 631 632 633 634 635 636 637 638 639 640 641 642 643 644 645 646 647 648 649 650 651 652 653 654 655 656 657 658 659 660 661 662 663 664 665 666 667 668 669 670 671 672 673 674 675 676 677 678 679 680 681 682 683 684 685 686 687 688 689 690 691 692 693 694 695 696 697 698 699 700 701 702 703 704 705 706 707 708 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716 717 718 719 720 721 722 723 724 725 726 727 728 729 730 731 732 733 734 735 736 737 738 739 740 741 742 743 744 745 746 747 748 749 750 751 752 753 754 755 756 757 758 759 760 761 762 763 764 765 766 767 768 769 770 771 772 773 774 775 776 777 778 779 780 781 782 783 784 785 786 787 788 789 790 791 792 793 794 795 796 797 798 799 800 801 802 803 804 805 806 807 808 809 810 811 812 813 814 815 816 817 818 819 820 821 822 823 824 825 826 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2461 2462 2463 2464 2465 2466 2467 2468 2469 2470 2471 2472 2473 2474 2475 2476 2477 2478 2479 2480 2481 2482 2483 2484 2485 2486 2487 2488 2489 2490 2491 2492 2493 2494 2495 2496 2497 2498 2499 2500 2501 2502 2503 2504 2505 2506 2507 2

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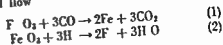
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# Iron (extraction from ore)

Iron is extracted from iron ore and concentrates by pyrometallurgical processes based upon the application of heat and reducing agents at temperatures of 700-1100°C. The most desirable products are hematite (Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) and magnetite (Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>). The principal reaction is as follows:



Magnetite is similarly reduced.

Reduction is carried out in blast furnaces and in so-called direct reduction processes. The blast furnace process produces molten pig iron containing about 4% carbon and a total of approximately 30% silica, which is then melted in a converter or pig iron teel to produce spool or teel iron. Direct reduction processes at lower temperatures and there fore produce cold-chamber iron which is relatively free from slag and the metal noted above. These metal re-forms and is used with the iron at the highest temperature where the blast furnace process is applied. The term direct process implies that the cold-chamber iron is used directly in the production of teel by melting with other materials.

**The blast furnace process** The blast furnace process is the most efficient method for the production of molten pig iron. It is a large-scale process in which the iron ore is reduced to iron in a blast furnace. The process is carried out in a blast furnace which is a large cylindrical vessel lined with refractory material. The iron ore is fed into the top of the furnace and is reduced by a gas which is produced by the combustion of coal. The gas is then used to reduce the iron ore. The iron is then melted in a converter or pig iron teel. The process is carried out in a blast furnace which is a large cylindrical vessel lined with refractory material. The iron ore is fed into the top of the furnace and is reduced by a gas which is produced by the combustion of coal. The gas is then used to reduce the iron ore. The iron is then melted in a converter or pig iron teel.

tro gas d b t h y re norm lly hydr ted a n  
Fe(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub> 9H<sub>2</sub>O nd ferric ammon ium alum NH  
Fe(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub> 12H<sub>2</sub>O Bec ue of mila sties n c  
a d ch rge al m n m n nd ferric n h a s quite  
a l g u chem tre alth u h f r i ch hydr ide  
n t amph teri The a hyd h l r des and b o  
m des h e d m e r i c p for e m p l Fe Cl  
a d a t a l y c e r t a n o r g n c r e a t i o s The hy  
k e d r t e d o n Fe(H<sub>2</sub>O) w h i h a f o d i o l t  
m b n w t h O H F Cl CN SCN N  
C-O and ther n t f r m c o o d n a t i n o m  
p l e x e A t h c n t r t f i n n c e s e s m o r e  
g r p e c m b n w t h e c t i n u t i c m b n a  
t o c h s F Cl and Fe(CN) r r e c h e d  
Th f i r r a t o FeO w h c h n t a n r n n  
t h 6 + m i d a t o n t a t e s b l e d b y r a t  
w t h a t g d n t s c h s h y p o c h l o s t e n a l k a  
l e s o l t S a l t s s c h a s h a FeO and BaF O  
e r e d l y p e p a e d n d f a r l y s t a b l S l u  
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r r a y o f c m p o d w t h b o d t b n C o r r  
m t t e F C i s a c o m p n t o f t e e l T h e c r y s  
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t a b l e d e n t r g l m g e t c n c n t a d a  
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y a d e m p l m f r m c r d l i e l d g  
t h f a m p r u n b l e k F e ( C N ) a m d f r m  
f r o n d p t m f e r r o c y d k F e ( C N ) a  
T h c m p d T r n b l l b l u m a d e f r o m f e r r u  
i d p o t m f r y d k F e ( C N ) a  
b e l i e v e d t e d e c t i p s a n b l e T h r e  
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a d t h e r g r p l h s N O C O S O  
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w t h b o m d e d p e s r e t h e  
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p e t g l g t h b g g t m d t h a m e  
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M d t e s f f r o c w t h b t t e t  
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l t g t h h b e e n p p r e d S  
C o N C K E T r t t o E L E M F T S [ J O E ]

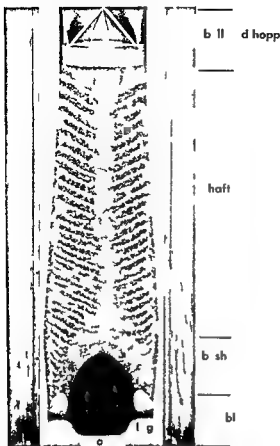


Fig 1 Arrangement of materials in furnace model

layers represent the relatively coarse coke and the white layers the charges of relatively fine ore. This layered arrangement is inherent in finer size of the ore its steeper angle of repose and the flow of material off the conical shaped bell when it is lowered to discharge the raw materials from the hopper shown at the top of the model. Liquid iron and slag collect in a bottom cylindrical section called the hearth. The lighter pear shaped areas near the top of the crucible correspond to combustion zones. Preheated air is forced into these combustion zones through water cooled copper castings called tuyeres.

An inverted frustum of a cone located immediately above the hearth is known as the bosh. The formation of molten pig iron and slag in the bosh permits a gradual reduction in cross sectional area at lower level. The upper part of the furnace called the shaft is conical except for short cylindrical section. Widening of the shaft at lower levels permits the charge to move downward with out mechanical bridging as it expand upon heating. Additional cross sectional area at lower levels of the shaft also permit a lower descent of the charge and a longer residence time at temperatures where ore reduction and other metallurgical reactions occur. Similarly more area in the wider section of the furnace reduce the velocity of the ascending gas prolonging gas residence time.

Structurally the furnace consists of a steel shell lined with fire brick to contain heat. The top and hearth are water cooled to maintain the refractory

lining. The trend is to use carbon lining in the hearth and bosh and to insert bronze cooling pipes in the lining of the lower part of the shaft. Modern furnaces are about 28 ft in diameter in the hearth, are about 31 ft across the widest section and taper to about 21 ft at the stockline. An overall height of about 95 ft provides a working volume of about 50 000 ft<sup>3</sup>. Such furnaces consume 1100-1500 tons of coke per day and produce 1300-2400 tons of pig iron per day depending upon the iron content of the ore used, the coke required per ton of iron and the physical character of the raw material. Ore of high iron content reduces the amount of coke and stone (fluxing materials) required per ton of pig. Replacement of coke and stone with ore increases the weight of iron per cubic foot of charge. An increase from 50 to 60% in the iron content of the ore will for example introduce about 30% more iron per cubic foot of overall charge.

Permeable charges permit larger volumes of gases to move through the stock column more uniformly without building up pressures which support the charge and prevent it from settling regularly. Under such conditions a larger volume of blast can be applied, more coke can be burned, the charge will settle more rapidly and more pig iron will be produced. In general beds composed of particles of uniform size will offer less resistance to the flow of gases.

The value of uniformity in the size of the coke has been fully appreciated for many years because coke occupies about 60% of the volume of the charge. Pieces smaller than  $\frac{3}{4}$  in. are normally discarded for furnace use by screening the coke immediately before charging. Care is taken to blend the coals available to obtain a strong coke which will not fracture into small sizes upon handling prior to charging or in the furnace.

**Size preparation of raw materials** Since 1936, the large capital expenditures required to build new blast furnaces and the pressure due to inflation to increase the productivity of existing furnaces have stimulated a pronounced interest in the size preparation of iron ore and concentrate. The depletion of high grade deposits has been stated as the benefit of low grade deposits and the production of concentrates that must be agglomerated before they can be used in the blast furnace. During agglomeration, small sizes are converted to larger lumps by the application of heat which forms porous mass by grain growth and caul slag bonding without complete fusion. Although the use of agglomerated concentrates is increasing, large tonnages of direct shipping ore containing 50-60% Fe will be available for at least several decades. This ore can be used effectively in the blast furnace providing coarseness are crushed to about 2 in. and particle smaller than 2 in. are agglomerated by sintering. This procedure eliminates particles in a size range which offers high resistance to gas flow and also greatly reduces the amount of fine ore carried off a flue dust.

A recent development is to incorporate fluxes such as calcium oxide or magnesia into agglomerated material in the form of regularly shaped, spherical pellets. Pellets are produced by hot gas ball making machinery and are produced in large quantities. The production of self-fluxing agglomerates may lead to two-component charge

constituting of coke and self-fluxing agglomerates or to three-component charges of coke, screened ore and self-fluxing agglomerates. In comparison with the usual charge used in the past these modifications of sized material will make it possible to burn about 30% more coke per day per furnace and to increase production accordingly.

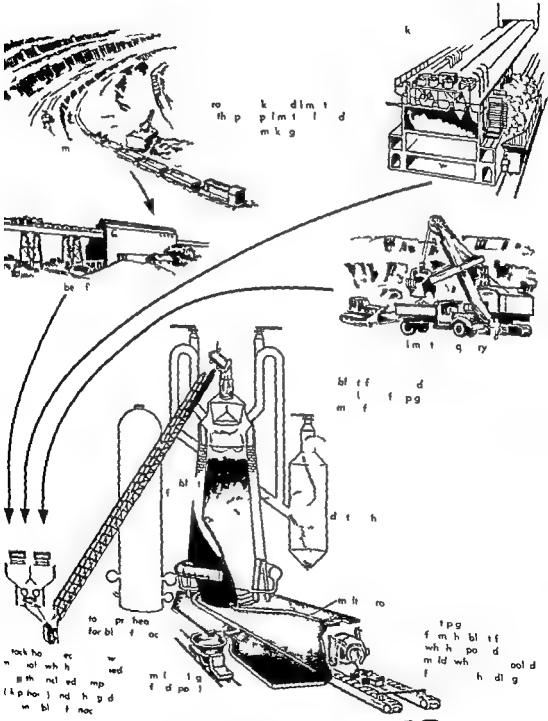


Fig 2 Schematic diagram of the blast furnace process for the production of iron and steel

The use of oxygen enriched blast containing balanced additions of steam is another promising development which will permit more coke to be burned in furnaces of all sizes. This will be possible because less gas is made per pound of carbon gasified with oxygen enriched air and steam as shown in Eqs. (3) to (5). Coke burning rates may be increased well in excess of 30% by the use of oxygen enriched air and steam in conjunction with sized iron bearing materials. If the quantity of iron per cubic foot of stock is increased 30% by the use of richer ores and the high iron charges are then moved through the furnace 30% faster production will increase by 69% ( $1.3 \times 1.3 = 1.69$ ).

**Reactions in the furnace** Heat and reducing gases are released near the base of the furnace by the combustion of coke. Because air contains about 79% nitrogen  $N_2$  and 21% oxygen  $O_2$  combustion in a deep full bed can be expressed as follows:



The products of combustion when using dry air consist of 34.7% carbon monoxide  $CO$  and 65.3%  $N_2$  [ $(5.76/20) \times 100 = 34.7\%$ ]. Two moles of coke carbon require 4.76 moles of air. If the air is enriched from 21 to 30%  $O_2$  by the addition of manufactured oxygen the combustion reaction will be as follows:



With this degree of oxygen enrichment only 3.33 moles of blast will be required to gasify 2 moles of carbon  $C$  and the products of combustion will consist of 46.2%  $CO$  and 53.8% nitrogen.

$$(2.0/4.33) \times 100 = 46.2\%$$

By the elimination of inert  $N_2$  oxygen enriched air provides a means for burning  $C$  at faster rates for increasing the reducing power of the gas and for increasing flame temperatures.

Air normally contains some moisture which reacts with carbon as follows:



Recent experience has proved that when moisture is added and higher blast temperature are used to compensate for the heat absorbed by reaction (5) smoother furnace operation and higher productivity result. The hydrogen  $H_2$  and  $CO$  produced by reaction (5) dilute the  $N_2$  and increase the reducing power of the gas, permitting the ore to be properly reduced even though it descends more rapidly. Oxygen enriched air has a similar effect.

Substantially all of the heat for the process is either introduced in the blast which is heated to temperature of 550-950  $^{\circ}C$  or is released by the combustion of coke in localized zones before the tuyeres. Nitrogen, carbon monoxide and hydrogen which leave the combustion zone at temperatures of 1700-1900  $^{\circ}C$  carry heat to the overlying column

of stock. Gases leave the top of the furnace at 1200  $^{\circ}C$ . More permeable areas receive more gas and are thus heated to a higher temperature. Efficiency of heat transfer as well as efficiency of reduction and other smelting reactions depends upon the degree of uniformity of gas flow through the stack column. The recent trend toward the use of high percentages of sinter pellets and sized ore aids the gradual elimination of all uncreened ore and increase efficiency and productivity and permits closer control over the composition of the metal.

**Control of pig iron composition** The carbon content of the iron is fairly well fixed at 4-4.40% because the iron is saturated with carbon. However, higher percentages of silicon tend to lower the solubility of carbon in iron. Because all the phosphorus and about 75% of the manganese in the charge are recovered in the pig iron these elements are largely controlled through the selection of the ore. Silicon and sulfur are controlled by adjustments in the temperature in the crucible and by regulating the composition of the slag through the addition of varying amounts of lime. An increase in the temperature of the hearth will raise the silicon and lower the sulfur content of the iron. Hearth temperatures are regulated by the amount of fuel used by the temperature of the blast and by the addition of steam to the blast. Eq. (5). Variations in gas flow and in the transfer of heat from gases to solids result in uneven heating of the charge making it difficult to control the temperature of the hearth.

**Direct processes** Although direct processes have been subjected periodically to extensive study, research and investigation on a pilot plant scale since 1920 they have thus far failed to compete with the blast furnace in supplying an economical source of iron for steelmaking. However, the present outlook for such processes to succeed in more favorable localities is brighter than in the past. Imported ores and concentrates of low gangue content are now more readily available for producing a solid reduced iron that will not produce excessive amounts of slag in steelmaking furnaces. Techniques for reforming nonreducing hydrocarbon gases such as methane into  $CO$  and  $H_2$  have been improved. Substantial progress has also been made in the development of fluidized bed techniques which permit the flow of reducing gas through beds of finely divided ore or concentrates in counterflow processes which are more efficient than traditionally older processes. The generally high prices of steel scrap since World War II have stimulated interest in direct processes as a means for producing a cheaper source of metallic iron for steelmaking. Current developments which show great promise in increasing the productivity of blast furnaces will have an important bearing upon the price of steel scrap and the future competitive position of steel scrap direct process iron and pig iron. See CAST IRON COKE IRON IRON ALLOYS MINING OPEN CUT OR PIT ORE DRIFTING

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## Iron alloys

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Air normally contains some moisture which reacts with carbon as follows:



Recent experience has proved that when moisture is added and higher blast temperature are used to compensate for the heat absorbed by reaction (5) smoother furnace operation and higher productivity result. The hydrogen  $H_2$  and CO produced by reaction (5) dilute the  $N_2$  and increase the reducing power of the gas permitting the ore to be properly reduced even though it descends more rapidly. Oxygen enriched air has a similar effect.

Substantially all of the heat for the process is either introduced in the blast which is heated to temperatures of 550-950 C or is released by the combustion of coke in localized zones before the tuyeres. Nitrogen carbon monoxide and hydrogen which leave the combustion zones at temperatures of 1,000-1,900 C carry heat to the overlying column

of stock. Gases leave the top of the furnace at 150-200 C. More permeable areas receive more gas and are thus heated to a higher temperature. Efficiency of heat transfer as well as efficiency of reduction and other smelting reactions depends upon the degree of uniformity of gas flow through the blast column. The recent trend toward the use of higher percentages of sinter pellets and sized ore with the gradual elimination of all uncreened ore will increase efficiency and productivity and permit closer control over the composition of the metal.

**Control of pig iron composition** The carbon content of the iron is fairly well fixed at about 4.0% because the iron is saturated with carbon. However, higher percentages of silicon tend to lower the solubility of carbon in iron. Because all the phosphorus and about 75% of the manganese in the charge are recovered in the pig iron these elements are largely controlled through the selection of the ore. Silicon and sulfur are controlled by adjustments in the temperature in the crucible and by regulating the composition of the slag through the addition of varying amounts of lime. An increase in the temperature of the hearth will raise the silicon and lower the sulfur content of the iron. Hearth temperatures are regulated by the amount of fuel used by the temperature of the blast, and by the addition of steam to the blast. Eq. (5). Variations in gas flow and in the transfer of heat from gases to solids result in uneven heating of the charge making it difficult to control the temperature of the hearth.

**Direct processes** Although direct processes have been subjected periodically to extensive study in research and investigation on a pilot plant basis since 1920 they have thus far failed to compete with the blast furnace in supplying an economical source of iron for steelmaking. However, the present outlook for such processes to succeed in remote favorable localities is brighter than in the past. Imported ores and concentrates of low gangue content are now more readily available for producing solid reduced iron that will not produce excessive amounts of slag in steelmaking furnaces. Techniques for reforming nonreducing hydrocarbons such as methane into CO and  $H_2$  have been improved. Substantial progress has also been made in the development of fluidized bed techniques which permit the flow of reducing gases through beds of finely divided ore or concentrates in counterflow processes which are more efficient than older processes. The generally high prices of steel scrap since World War II have stimulated interest in direct processes as a means of producing a cheaper source of metallic iron for steelmaking. Current developments which show great promise in increasing the productivity of blast furnaces will have an important bearing upon the price of steel scrap and the future competition of steel scrap direct process iron and pig iron. See CAST IRON, COKE, IRON ALLOYS, MINING, OPEN HEARTH, PIT, ORE DRIFT.

PYROMETALLURGY STEELMA LFACTURE WROUGHT  
[T.L.]  
190  
Bbl og aply J W F ankl n Indu try look t  
d eed ed t n Eng lf i g J 158(12) 84-93  
197 US Ste l C rp Th Wak x Sh png a d  
Treat g f St l th d 197

## Iron alloys

All y f i o n o t a n g t h e l e m e n t s a m u n t  
y n g f o m a f w p e r c e n t t o p e h a y h i g h s  
85% and diff nti ted f m c a t u r o n a d t e e l b y  
e m m o a c e p t n c e n t h n d t r y F o r p p o e  
of c o e n e t h e y a n b g r o u p e d b y t h e c m  
m e a l a p p l e t n t h f o l l o w i n g a t e g i e  
m a g n t i a l l y e l e t t a l r t a c a l l s h a t  
m i g a l l y r o i o n e s i n g l l o y a n d  
t h r r l e x p a n n l l y s

The numb r f p bly u l l a l l y s n d t h r  
chem al g l t o s i e r m s A t l a t 20,000  
o-called ng eering all y c l d n g b o t h f e r  
e u a d n o t r o u h b e e n d b e d a n d n e w  
e s a r b e n g a d d e d o t a n t l y T l s d c i n  
h a b e e n l m e d t m f t h e b e t t e r k n w n t y p e  
f c h g p t h a r d e n t f i e d b y t a d e a m e s  
l t g h t i t u i d b e b o r n n m i n d t h a t n m n y  
i n t r e a l l o s o f t h e a m m p m n a a i b l  
b l f m d g t p d a d e r t h e a m e s  
A n a l l y m a y b e a t t m e d e s e r b e d b y a n q u a l i  
f i e d n a m d g l e o m p t a l t h u g h i t  
r p r e t a t u e f a e t h m e m b r s f w h o h  
n n p a c t e m o e p f a l l y d e n i e d b y t  
i n u m b r E h f i t h e m m b r s v m d f i  
a u n f t h i g l e m p o s i t n n d s d g e d  
t o t s f y s m p r i u l a q e m n t F r e x a m  
p l i n l i a k l e h m m r l l o y n t a n g  
a p p x m t l y 77% n k l l c h m m o a d  
7% Th i m d f i d t h f l o n l y  
b y t h e d d i f m l l n t r l l d a m o i f  
o f l m m A l t u t a t m T i n d o l m  
b i m (n h u m) C h t m p t g t h d h a d  
n d t o r n d u e p t i b l t g e h a r d a g

In t h a o f l w t h e p p r i a r m  
p r b l t o t h o f l l l t h u g h f m  
t m h b n l u m n d s l o o t h o t h e r  
h a d t a n a b t 28% o b t C o d 3%  
m l y b d m M d i h d d w t h l u m m  
n d t a m l t e h i b t g o o d e p a d p t u  
p r o p e r t a t l l t m p e a t u r e s e s p e l l y a l  
1600 F a d m d h o b e n e d f o f i t t g  
t u b e f l a d g n j e t a f i g n T h l o l y  
g r o u p l y l l y T a n d l e l y 901  
t h r e p l e f r f m o d f i d l l y s

Magnetic alloys M a g n e t i c m a y b e b r o d l y  
f i d n d t w h a d g r t t r m g  
e t a l l y o f t a d t n t (p m a n t) r m l l  
u a l l y h d d i d m T b l l  
Th l t l l o y b e o m e m g n t e d i n a m g n t i  
f i l d h i a e e l y d m a g n e t i z e d w h e n t h f i l l  
m o e d T h a g f m a t t n h h s t h  
p o o e s t t h i o k e l a l l y w h h t h e  
b e t n d n e l d t h w e l l k o w l t l (f i l  
t l T h e s o f t l l o y f i n d w i d t d p l a

t i n n m o d e r n c o m m i n a t i o n a n d e l e c t r a l  
p o w e r e q u i p m e n t a n d a r e t h m t i m p o r t a n t m  
t h e b a s f q u a n t i t y p r o d u c e d T h e y a r e r d i n a r l y  
u e d i n t h e w r i g h t t e

T h r e t e n t i v e r h a r d a l l y s r m a g n e t i z e d  
a f t e r a p p l c a t i o n f a m a g n e t i c f i l d A l t h u g h p r o d u c e d i n l e e r q u a n t i t y t h e y a r e t h e o l d e r f i t t e t w g r u j T h a l l o y s a r e e m p l y e d w h e r a c n t a t m a g n e t i c f i l d s r r q u i r e d a n d w h e r e i t i m p r a c t i c a l t e s t a b l h a n e l e c t m a g n e t i c f i e l d T h e y r e e d i n t h e w r i g h t r e c a t s t a t e o r a r e p r e p a r e d h t h n t r i n g p r o c e s w h i h i e p e c i a l l y u e f u l i n m a k n g s m l l m a g n e t s S o m e o f t h e A l n c s m a y b e t h r e c a t r i n e d

S o m e a l l e s p e c i a l l y o f t h e s f i t g r o u p s w l l  
s o t h e r m a g n e t i c m a t e r i a l p o e s c e r t a i n f e a t u r e s t h a t m a k e t h e m p e c u l i r l y u s e d f o r p e c i f i c a p p l c a t i o n s F r x m p l t h e p r m a l l y f i t h a l l o y c o t a i n i n g a b o u t 30% n c k e l 0% w n s c h a s t h e C a r p e n t e r T e m p e r a t u r e C o m p e n s a t o r 30 s a r e s l n e s i v w t h t e m p e r a t u r e T h y r u e d s h i n t m e l e c t r i a l a n d t h e r i n t r u m n t s t o c o m p e n s a t e f o r a m l i c h t t e m p e r a t u r a r a t n O t h e r a l l o y s u c h a s P e r m a n e n t C o n p r n k d I p r m e h b u t a r e l a t i v e l y n a n t p e r m a n e n t i t y a n d p e n e t r a t e f i e l d t r e g h a n d a r w i d e l y e m p l y e d i n c o m m u n i c a t i o n u t

A l t h u g h t h l t a l l o y a r e g e r a l l y e d a s l d m e t l s t h y a r m t i m e e m p l o y e d i n t h e f i n e l y d i d e d c o n d i t i o n c o r e i n d u s t r i e s i n t e l e p h o n e a n d r a d i o f r e q u e n c y c i r c u i t w h e r t h y m m i n i m e e d d y c e r r a t l e s T h e f e r m a g n e t i c o r d e a s o u e d f e r m a r p u p o e s T w i m j r m e d e v e l o p m e n t o f e c n t y e a r r e t h e r e s a m e p r m t m a g n e t m e t a l i s a F e r r m a g l a n d t h e s p e c i a l l y p o c e d a n d h e t r e t e d 3% s l n i o n e h i b t i g c u b e o r n t i n S M a g n e t i c m a t e r i a l s M A G N E T I S

E l e c t r i c a l r e s i s t a n c e a l l o y s T h e s e a l l y s a r e b e s t k n o w n i t h e h a t t e y e l e m e n t s c h a m l i b u e h l d u e m a s d t o n h e a t r e l e c t r i c a n g e s a n d a t t e r s T h e m o s t c o m m o n l y u e d a l l o y f r i t h p u p o e s t h 80-20 n i c k e l - c h r o m i u m t y p l t h s a n e c l e n t m b n a t i n f e l e c t r i c a l a n d m e c h a n a l p o p e r t a n d g d i t n e t o s o d i n t e m p e r a t u p t 2100 F

T h e r a l s o a n u m b e r f i o n c n t a i n g l y l y l t e d n T a b l I t h a t f i n d w i d a p p l i c a t i o n n t h f i e l d T h e m t p o p u l r f i t h e o t a i n 60% n c k l 16% h o m i n t h e b a l a e i o n 38% k l 19% h o m u m t h e b a l a n a n d 27% h y m u m 5% a l u m n u m 1% c b a l t t h b a l a c c e i a

F o r m e a p p l a t a s t h e l a t t y p e p e r o r t e e n t h e 80-20 n i c k l - c h r o m i u m a l l o y f i s m a x i m u m p e r a n t t m p e a t u r e (a p p r o x m a t e l y 2450 F) d i s c e i t u t e h g l e a d t h a l n g e e r u r e l l B e c a u s e f i t e n d n c y r i c e t a e n l n e t h w t h t m (g r w) n d a r l t r e l y l w t n g t h w h e n h o t h a n g l e m t m e d e o f t h a l l y n g o d m e h a a l p p r t

Table 1 Magnetic alloys

Name	Percentages								Remarks
	Fe	Ni	Co	Cu	Al	Ti	Si	Other	
Hard alloys									
Alnico I	Balance	21	5		12				Wide range of applications
Alnico II	Balance	17	12	5	10				High BH product
Alnico III	Balance	25			12				Can be cut and ground without chipping low cost
Alnico IV	Balance	28	5		12				High coercive force
Alnico V	Balance	14	24	3	8				Oriented highest BH product of known alloys
Alnico VI	Balance	15	24	3	8	1.25			Oriented high coercive force & residual magnetism
Alnico XII	Balance	18	35		6	8			Highest coercive force of any Alnico
Cunife	20	20		60					High coercive force in thinable & ductile high cost
Indalloy	Balance		12					17 Mo	Sintered product
Vectolite								30 Fe <sub>2</sub> O 44 FeO 26 CoO	Highest coercive force of any material except Alnico XII sintered material light weight
Ferromag 1								BaO 6Fe <sub>2</sub> O	Extremely high coercive force ceramic type light weight
Soft alloys									
Puron	99.95								Magnetic standard
High Si Iron	Balance						4.5		Power distribution audio transformers
Cubex	Balance						3		Cubic oriented
Low Si Iron	Balance						1.0		Intermittent duty motors relays
Hi pe si	Balance						3		Transformer cores
Nicalloy	Balance	47							High permeability power transformer field
Permalloy	Balance	78.5							Sensitive direct-current apparatus relays high permeability low hysteresis loss
4 Mo Permalloy	Balance	79						4 Mo	High frequency electrical apparatus high permeability and resistivity
Hi perco 35	Balance		35					1 Cr	Electric motors and generators high saturation
Permendur	Balance		50						Apparatus operating at high flux density high permeability at high frequencies
Vanadium Permendur	Balance		49					V	Almost very high saturation and margin to iron
Permular	Balance	45							Magnetically transformers high and constant permeability
Isoperm	Balance	40							High constant permeability
Supermalloy	Balance	79						5 Mo	Construction transformers high permeability
Mu Metal	Balance	74						5 C	Still peculiar to transformers and high permeability
Carpenter Temperature Compensator 30	Balance	30							High permeability especially at temperatures
Conpernik		50							High permeability at high temperatures

N m	I c ntages						R m k
	F	C	Ni	Co	Al	Oth	
Alces	B l e 1				5		Res t o d t n t 100 f
Al hro	Bal m 16				5		Res t d t n t 100 f
Alu h om O	B l a ce 30				5		Res t u d t n t 100 l
B l o	B l e		0				Self regul tors l y t peratur e
Nel m A		0	80				Res t x d t n t 100 F
Chrom l C	B l ce 16		60				Res t l t n to 1800 F he vy d ty th e- stat
Chromel D	B l ce 19		3				Res ta d t n t 1100 f
D m t	Bala ce		46				Coppe l l t d cut n r l y f seal ng in l ad n l e t l g t t l l e and r d o f l e e
F r o p y r	Bal ce 7				7	1 Mn + 5	Res t d t n t 100 F
J B m G	6	22	58			6 Cu 6 Ni	Res t n e l l y t s e r e l y r r n t m o- p l e s
R l l A	B l re 3				6		Res t s d t t 100 f
Smith 10	Bala ce 38				8		Res t s d t t 100 f
T p h t C	Bala ce 1						Res t s x d t t 18.0 f

A Free h all y by th m conta ns 5% r e bala ce k l d s used s l t g e r e t o r e

In the elect cal a d lect r n e field the all y d the p f e s s e s m e f w b t h a e i n d c t e d Table 2 F x m p l e the 70% c k l 30%  
pe u e d : th r m o m t r b u l b and o t h r a p p l i t n q i n g h g h t e m p r a t u r e f l c n t f m t n e a l l y n t a i n g 60° c m k e l 16° c h m u m a d t h b a l a c e s o n s p a t u l a l y t e d f i h y d t y s h e o t s b e u s e d i n a b l y t i n t d h g h o r l a d s S e R E - I S T A C E , A C T R A L R E S I S T A N C E H E T I N G

Heat resisting alloys In the cho s e f alloys for igh t p r a t u r e s s i h m c a l r e u s a c e : s i l f i t h r e q r m e t a N o t o n l y m i t h e n a : a l a b t a t a l l y e t a i n t g a l d i n i t y i n the t m o p h e a n d i t h t e m p t f o p a n b e t m t a l p f i n t i n g i t h and h o c k t e t m e e t r i e q u m i s The t r m h g h t e m p t e e r e c i m p l i c d f r e n t t h r m a l c o n d t o b t f r t h a l l o y d u e d s i l e c t a m m m t m p r a t u r e ( 1 0 0 0 F h a b c h n A b e t h i p t t h c n d r d A m r i a I r n a n d S t l l t u t f ( A I S I ) d t a l e t e e l a i t h t a p p l c h l t h e y p e l m t a t o s n m e h i s p p t i e s

F m n y e r l l y t g h n i k l c h o m u m d e l l w t k a w n d e m p l d m the c h m i l d t r y b u t d u W o l d W a l l n d d m a d f l l y t w i t h d h g h t m p r a t u r e f a h p p l a n s a x h a t u p r h g e f l g e l t d n t h d e l p m t f w t t o d k w h g h t m p e u m t a l s o m f w b b a e d b e d T b l 3 T h b a d l y c l a s s i f i e d n b a c b a l l b a o r n k l b a s e d p r d g u p o n t h p r e d m a n g l m t S o m e m p l o y e d i n the a s t t a t t h e w o g i t d s t f l the s m y b e s t l z d t h t h w g h t a t f m D l y 4 8 6 d t h R f r a c t l y s e e a m p l e s f t h f r i l T h e y h g d t n g h u p i b t 1350 F d t f t r y x d i n e s i

a e t 1500 F and find th it prin ipal ppl ca t n s i r b e b l a d e s h o d n g f l a t l l d i g ) a d i l o m f j e t e n g n e s

The col alt b a a l l y w i t h t d t e m p e r t r e a u p t o a b o u t 2100 F T h e r e x e l l e n t t r e n g t h a l i d u n a d e c r r o n r e t a n e a t h e h g h t e m p e r t r e s m a k t h m s u a l l e f r p e r h a r t b u c k t s and n o z z l v a n e s T h e i r h i g h t h o w e v e r p r e n t t h r u e f r m b n g e c o m e l u n t l t e m p e r t u r e s i n e x c e s s o f 1300 F a r e m e r r e d

The n i c k e l b e l l o y s h a e c e l l e n t o x d a i a d c o r r o n s i s t a n c e u p t 2 0 0 f T h e I n c o n i s ( R m n s i n E n g l a n d ) a e a d a n t a g e o u s i n e y e l h a t n g and c o o l n g e r r i c w h r e l a r g t e m p r a t u r e g r a d i e n t e x t S o m e a r p e c p i t i n h r d n g and d e l p r e y h i g h e l a t e d t m p e r t u e t r e n g t h T h e f l a t l l o y s c u t n r e l u l y l r g e m o u t o f m l y b d n m a n d f i n d p e r a l s e i n b e m l e q u i p m t t h a t p e a t e d i n c o r r o e n o m n i s

Corrosion resisting alloys The t m r e o n a t u g a g e r a l l v e r d n t h e t i o n i s t h e e t a t o a t t a c k b y l i q u i d a d g a s o t h e r t h a e r y g e n T h i n t v t y o f h a l t k d e p a d e n t u p a m a y f e t o s f o r e x m p l t h e a l l y s c n e e d t h p t c u l m e d i m u n d e r o n d a t n e a t a t i o n and i d n g s r e d u n g a n d u o n A l a r g n u m b e r o f t h a l l y o n d e r e d s e r r o o n e s t a c t n t a i n o n i n a m u n t a r y g f m 2 e r t e 50° N° k e l and e l o m m a c o m m n t u t n t t o g t h e r w t h 12 l c m l y b d e u r h i t p r e C t u g i n W n d a l n c

B e u e o f t h m a n y f t r s i n v l d n n g l e a l l y s a l b l t h t w l l d q a t l e t a l l t r m o f o i n T h e r e k s b l a r g e v r t y f l l o y m p r e u e d b t o n l y a f e w e d e r i b d i n T b l 4 I t i s o f t n p o s s i b l e m f i n d t h t w l l t l t a p p e m a t l y a t f y a y g n t f o m n i l r e q i m i s F e x a m p l

Duriron a cast silicon iron alloy (15% Si) is widely used in reaction kettles for handling acids and alkalis but it is quite unsatisfactory in resisting hydrochloric acid

Durichlor another cast silicon iron alloy of approximately the same silicon content and containing molybdenum may be used to resist this acid. In like manner Hastelloy C which may be cast or wrought is noted for its excellent resistance to hot

and cold solutions of most highly corrosive materials

Many of the corrosion resistant alloys are heat resistant and the borderline between the two groups is often not clearly demarcated. See CORROSION.

**Thermal expansion alloys** Table 5 lists a few important members of a group of iron containing alloys having unique thermal expansion properties.

Table 3 Heat resisting alloys

Name	Percentages					Form in service	Upper limit of service typical applications
	Fe	Cr	Ni	Co	Other		
Iron Base							
A 286	Balance	15	26		0.2 Al 1.15 Mo 0.02 Ti 0.02 V	W	1300 F turbine blades and burners
D scaloy	Balance	14	26		3 Mo 1.5 Ti 0.2 Al	W	1350 F turbine wheels and disks bolts
Incoloy	Balance	20	3		0.5 Cu 1.5 Mn	W	1000 F resists sulfur attack and green rot
Multimet	Balance	21	20	20	3 Mo 3.5 W 1 Cb + Ta 0.15 N	C	1500 F turbine blades and combustion chambers
Refractaloy 26	Balance	18	37	19	3 Mo 3 Ti 0.3 max Al	W	1450 F turbine blades and parts
Cobalt Base							
Haynes 21	2 max	28	3	Balance	6 Mo 0.3 C	C	2100 F turbosupercharger buckets
Haynes 25	2 max	20	10	Balance	14 W 1.5 Mn 0.15 C	W	1800 F turbine blades and burner parts
S-816	4	20	20	38 min	4 Mo 6 W 4 Cb	W C	1500 F turbine blades
Nickel Base							
Hastelloy X	Balance	22	45	15	9 Mo 0.6 W	W C	2000 F jet engine tail pipes afterburner com- ponents turbine blades
Inconel	Balance	15	74		5 Cu	W C	1000 F exhaust manifold afterburners
Nimonic 90	5 max	20	Balance		1.5 Al 5 Ti	W	1800 F turbine blades afterburners
René 41	5 max	19	Balance	11	1.5 Al 10 Mo 3 Ti 0.01 B	W	1750 F gas turbine com- ponents
Ud met 500	4 max	18	Balance	17	3 Al 4 Mo 3 Ti	W	1900 F turbine blades afterburners
Waspaloy	1	19	Balance	14	3.5 Mo 2.5 Ti 1.2 Al	W	1900 F turbine blades afterburners

W wrought C cast

Table 4 Corrosion resisting alloys

Name	Percentages					Other	Remarks
	Fe	Cr	Ni	S	Mo		
Alloyco	Balance	20	29	3	3	4 Cu	Acid and alkali resistant pumps valves
Durichlor	Balance		1	14.5	4		HCl resistant
Duriron	Balance			14.5			Acid (except HCl) and alkali resistant
Hastelloy B	5	1	Balance	1	8	5 Co 1 Mn 0.4 V	Resists HCl and boiling H <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>
Hastelloy C	5	16.5	Balance	1	17	2.5 Co 1.5 W 0.1 V	Resists SO <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> and Cl <sup>-</sup> and H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> at high temp
Hastelloy D		1	Balance	9	1	1.5 Co 3 Cu 9.25 Si	Resists HCl and H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub>
Ilum G	Balance	2	58		6	6 Cu	Acid resistant (including H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> )
Pioneer Metal	Balance	2.5	3		5		Acid resistant
Worthite	Balance	20	24	3	3		Resists H <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> and weak HCl

Table 5 Thermal Expansion Coefficients

Name	Properties				Coeff. of expansion	Remarks
	Fe	C	Ni	Co		
I	Balance		36	0.15 C	Low	Buttler's test length of 1 m tapes
K Ni	Balance		36	0.17	Same as glass	Vacuum test Diam. 1.5 in. max. 1 length of 1 m near tape tapes
N-Sp. C	Balance	55.4		4 T 0.6 Al	Conductivity	
N-Sp. Lo	Balance	5		4 T 0.6 Al	Low	
N-Sp. H	Balance	9	0.9	4 T	High	

Th all y of the In ar type nia g bo t 36  
nickel the ■ lan s o ha e an ext emely low  
c fit ut thermal exp They a e sed as  
ods a d t ap s i gnet wo k c ap n ating  
od l m b l ■ wh els, lock d watches  
and in delf c te in t um nts They a e al m  
pl y d whe l w xpan n all v ope t with  
y high p s ■ lly to a m em nt  
with t mp rat r cha ge a in b neta l th rm l  
t hes ndr d c tube rm ed n temp ra  
t r g lat r

Of especial interest to the N Spaniards is  
the one which has been found in the  
tunnage at the site of the N Span Loeth b  
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 s i o A L L O C A S T I N g S T E E L W R I G H T  
 I R O

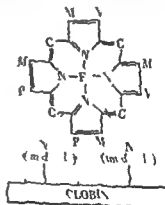
### Iron metabolism

Th m t b o m f r n d i c s e d n t h r u c l e  
w i t h r s p e i t t a r l e i n t h e r y t h c y l r e d  
b l o o d l l a d t s a b p t f m t h e i t s t a n l  
l r c t

Erythrocytes The cell filled with red pigment  
about 40-60% of the total blood. The main function  
is to carry oxygen from the lungs to the tissues.  
about 60-65% of the blood is made up of red blood  
cells. The hemoglobin in the red blood cells  
binds with oxygen in the lungs and carries it to the  
tissues. The iron in the hemoglobin molecule  
is essential for the binding of oxygen.

trans into the blood The ph of g cal stimulu  
for the production of erythrocyte is a l ering  
the xylene ment of the blood in the bone mar  
row The r po e of the bone marrow consists  
of the most important a p c t of a clim tiza  
tion i l e t h g h altitud The r ythrocyt s are  
n derg g continuous d nt gati n mo ily in the  
ple n b t o me e r t in the bone mar w and  
ther set loc d the al su capable of phag  
ocytic act on The br akdown of hemoglobin in  
the p c e l ad t the release of iron and f  
mat n of ble pigments The average l f pan f  
erythrocytes is ab ut 10 d ; i e man 100 days  
for the d g a l 3<sup>rd</sup> day for the chicken S  
HEMATOCRITIS

■ In globin the respiratory protein of vertebrate erythrocytes is a conjugation of an iron

H m g l b f ~~front~~

H m pl b f gm ts (A Whrt P H dl E L  
Smith D St ne P pl f B o h m stry M G w  
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porphyrin compound (heme) with a basic protein (globin). Four atoms of iron and four heme groups are present in the hemoglobin molecule.

The porphyrins are all derivatives of porphyrin a ring structure composed of four pyrrole groups linked by  $-\text{CH}=\text{}$  (methene) bridges. The ferroprotoporphyrin of hemoglobin contains methyl groups (M) in positions 1, 3, 5, and 8 (see figure); vinyl groups (V) in 2 and 4; and propionic acid groups (P) in 6 and 7. In each of the ferroprotoporphyrin groups of hemoglobin, an iron atom is centrally located, bound to the four nitrogens and to imidazole groups of globin. Combination of hemoglobin with oxygen probably involves a displacement of one imidazole group in each ferroprotoporphyrin moiety. Different hemoglobins among different vertebrates differ in the amino acid structure of the respective globins.

Synthesis of the protoporphyrin of hemoglobin requires only two precursors: glycine and acetate. The glycine supplies all of the nitrogen and eight of the 36 carbons. The utilization of acetate involves the intermediate formation of a succinyl derivative arising from the decarboxylation of  $\alpha$ -keto glutaric acid, a component of the citric acid cycle with which the synthesis is closely linked. The mechanism for the incorporation of iron is probably an enzyme reaction. The essentiality of copper to iron utilization is well established.

Metabolic breakdown of hemoglobin released on disintegration of the erythrocytes involves oxidative cleavage of the porphyrin ring at a methene bridge to form linear pyrroles, the bile pigments. Very little of the iron of heme is excreted; most of it being used again in hemoglobin formation or being stored as ferritin. Biliverdin, a green pigment, is first formed and is the main pigment in the bile of some animals, but in the human, bilirubin (red) is the main pigment. The bile pigments are removed from the blood by the liver and are secreted into the intestinal tract in the bile where they undergo further chemical changes. Some of the intermediates in these reactions are reabsorbed and either returned to the liver or excreted in the urine to form its pigment urochrome. See BILIRUBIN, LIVER.

**Iron metabolism.** Iron metabolism relates to iron liberated from functional combinations (for example, the heme proteins) in the tissues and that absorbed from the intestinal tract. The efficiency of iron absorption is not rated highly, however, it is impossible to measure it accurately because of the bilateral exchange of iron between blood and the intestinal lumen. Whatever its origin, iron is transported in combination with a plasma globulin (transferrin) in the ferric state to the liver, spleen, or bone marrow where it is released as ferrous iron to unite with a protein apoferritin in the presence of oxygen to form ferritin. Ferritin contains tightly bound micelles of a ferric hydroxide having the approximate composition  $[\text{Fe}(\text{OOH})_4(\text{FeOPO}_3\text{H}_2)]$ ; its iron content is variable and may

reach values as high as 23%. The iron released from transferrin may be incorporated into protoporphyrin to form heme and into the prosthetic groups of various enzymes as an iron porphyrin complex. Hemosiderin, another storage form of iron combined with protein, is found in the tissues in increasing amounts as the tissue iron increases beyond the normal physiological levels.

The excretion of iron in the urine is normally inconsiderable. Its excretion from the skin is continuous and may be important in the daily iron economy of the body. Iron released from transferrin in the blood of the subcutaneous capillary bed combines with the proteins in the dermis and is carried slowly to the surface of the skin as the cells of the epidermis desquamate. The replacement of the epidermal layers in man is a slow process. See BLOOD, HEMOGLOBIN. [H H W.]

**Bibliography.** J. S. Fruton and S. Simmonds, *General Biochemistry*, 2d ed. 1958. National Research Council. *Conference on Hemoglobin*. NAS NRC Publ. 557. 1958.

## Iron silicon alloy

A soft (easily magnetized) magnetic material. Iron silicon alloys are used principally as the magnetic core materials in power transformers. The yearly product is valued in the hundreds of millions of dollars.

Although silicon contents up to 6% have been employed, the material most used now contains about 3% silicon. The highest quality is obtained by a combination of (1) purification especially with respect to nonmetallic impurities such as carbon, oxygen, and sulfur, and (2) control of the processes of rolling and annealing so that the crystallites composing the sheet are aligned with a favorable crystal axis parallel to the length of the sheet. For a list of properties see MAGNETIC MATERIALS. [R M R.]

## Ironwood

Any of at least ten kinds of tree in the United States which are commonly known as ironwood. Because of uncertainty as to just what tree indicated the name ironwood has been abandoned in the latest check list of the native and naturalized trees of the United States. Probably the best known of the ten is the hornbeam *Carpinus carolinensis*. Some of the others are *Ostrya virginiana*, eastern hophornbeam, *Bumelia lycioides*, buckthorn hamelia, *B. tenax*, tough bumelia, *Cliftonia monophylla*, buckwheat tree, and *Cyrilla racemiflora*, swamp cyrilla or swamp ironwood. All of the species except *Ostrya* are restricted to the southern United States. Other commonly called ironwoods are *Eugenia* and redberry eugenia of southern Florida and the Florida keys, *Ficus paniculata*, butterflybush of southern Florida, and *Osagea knoultonii*, knoulton hophornbeam of southern United States. Leadwood *Krugiodendron ferreum*, a native of southern Florida, has the high

pec fi gray i f ll woods native to the United States and lo kn wn a blk ironwood See FOREST A D FORESTRY TREE [A n c]

## Irradiation isotopic

The bjection f a mate ial to adi t n fr m rad t e not p (r di i t p s) fo the ape i t d other purp e (s e RADIOISOTOPE) Al th gh only rr di t n b ad cti e tpe i treat d in th rt le m ny th r f m of rad a t n r ed for r r d a t i n F m pl se

## ULTRAVIOLET RADIATION (BIOLOGY)

Th re e tw type of tpic r r d a t i o n In th fi t the ur (r d a t i o n is pl ed n a cap le in th ec nd th rad o t p i d s p r e d n th m te d t be i rad i e d Enc p l i e d rad a t i o n m are ed i t e r i l i z e f d i f i and b l g a l t p r d changes i p l a t i and th e r m a t r a l n d t a d m m d e l l th apy I r a d a t i o n w i t h d i p r e d i s o t o p e s l a g l v o n f e d e r t a t p r o d u c e s f m d i e l t h r p y n w h a h r i l e d t p e a d m i t e d i a p a t i e n t

Th d i t f r m a d e t w o t p e p r o d u c e s e v e t a l l t h a m e f f e t a t h r a d a t i o n f r o m h i g h l i g h t p r t l e I r r a d i a t i o n t h h i o f a a d o o t p o h i g h l t a g e m o h n d e p e d s p r i m a l y q n n e n e n c e a n d o s t A r a d o i s o t o p e a d t u r e d n o t r q u i t e t h e e x t e n d a n d c o m p l m h u r y n e e s r y f a h i g h l t a r a d i u r e R a d i o i s o t o p a d a t i h w e a n t b e t u r n e d n a n d f i a n d n e q u e n t l y r e q m l a b r t h e l d n g f o r b l t h p o r t p u r p e s

A t h p e n t t m b a l t 6 0 s b y f r t h e m t o m m n l y u e d a d i t p e s r e n a p l a t e d d t m o u c l i t h m m l 3 o f f e s o n d e b l p m e p i m a l y b e c e u i a n b u d n t f n p o d t C i m l l a l b l n l r e q u i t a t t h p o c e s n g o f f l e m e r a t m n u e l a t t ( N L E R F U E L S R E P O C R I S r v c ) I d e e d t h p p l m n o f e u m 1 3 7 t o f i t n m i m e f t h p r b l e m s f d s p o s g l d i t e w t e s f o m t h e p e t n f n u l e a t

I d = 1 3 1 d g l d 1 9 8 w d l y d i n t h e d i p l i t h g A h r t l e d a d t p e d m n t d h b l y p r f e l f r m n l l y r n t a l y n t h a f o d e - 1 3 1 i p r i e t e d

I l d a l f s m d i e t i n t a t u m i n t h a o f g l d 1 9 8 Th p e c f i d i g l i n t a l t h a p v w i t h d 1 3 1 t h t t h e t h y r d g l d n a t t h l m u t i o d n C o e q t l c t f m f i t h r d d d e a d e m a b t i d b t h d m n t a t n o f l a g a m o u n t f t h w o t p e S R I D I A T I O N B I O L O G Y R A D I O C T O P E ( n o t c ) [ C L S ]

## Irregularia

Th n m g e n b y G C e u n 1 8 1 7 i a a s m l i g f e h i d w h t h e n u n d p p r o t l i d i t p a l t m t h m b l a a l p l t e s

remain imple the primary radi les are follow and th r g d t t l o w m o c o r l e s l i t e r a l s y m m e t y J D u r l a m a n d R M e l l i e ( 1 9 7 ) h a e b o w n t h a t t h e p y g a t e r d i r e g u l a t i a t e m f r m L a t e T m c p e d i d w h e r e a s t h e o t h e r l r e g i l a r a e v d e n t l y a r o f r o m E a r l y J u r a i c F e h i n a c e a T h e I r r e g u l a r i a r e t h e r f r e a n a r t i f i c i a l a m b l g e d m l a r b u n r e l a t e d f r m a n d t h e n a m e c n h a e n t a x o n o m i v a l d i t y S e D i a n r M A T A C E A E R Y M O I D E A P Y C A T E R I D A R E G I L A R I A [ H S F ]

## Irrigation of crops

The artifi l appl c i n f w a t e r t o t h e s o i l t o p r o d u c e p l a n t g r o w t h I r r i g a t i o n i n s o m e f o r m h a s b e e n p r a c t i c e d s i n c e t h e d a w n o f w r i t t e n h i t o r y I n t h e U n i t e d S t a t e s a b o u t 3 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 s e r e f c r o p s u n d e r i r r i g a t i o n

Use of water by plants All g r w i n g p l a n t i e w a t e r c o n s u m e s T h e r a t e f o r e a c h w e e r w i t h t h a g a n d k i n d f e r p g r o w n a n d t e m p a t u r a n d o t h e r a t m p h e r e c n d i t i n C r o w t h o f c r o p s u n d e r i r r i g a t i o n i s t m l a t e d l v p l u m m m o t o c o n d i t i o n d e t a r d e d b y e s e r d e f i c i e n t m t f w a t e r

C o d i t i o n s i n f l u e n c i n g t h a m o u n t o f w a t e r e d b y p l a n t i n c l d e t e h f a t o r s a s c l m a t a a v a i l a b l e w a t e r s u p p l y s o i l t r u c t e t p g a p h y a n d c u l t u r a l p r a c t i c e s M i t h i r r i g a t i o n w a t e r l i t l y e v a p o r a t i n f o m t h a d w a t e r s f a c e o r i t a n p r e d b y p l a n t T h e s e p r o c e s i n m b n a t i o n a r e c a l l e d c o n u m p t i o n o r e v a p o r a t i o n

T h e t e r m i r r i g a t i o n e q u i m e n t m e n t h e a m a t f w a t e r e d e d t o g r o w a c r o p e x c l u s i v e o f n a t u r a l r a i f a l l i n c l u d e d i n t h r e q u i r e m e n t o f w a t e r e d n t a n p r a t i o n b y p l a n t e v a p o r a t i o n f o m t h e s o i l a n d w a t e r u r f a c d e e p p e r c o l a t i o n b e l o w t h r o o t z o n a n d t h e r w a t e r w h i c h a n n t b e e c o n o m i c a l l y a d e d A n i r r i g a t i o n r e q u i r e m e n t f o r a w o l d i n d i c a t e s t h e u f f i c i e n t w a t e r t o c o v e r t h e p a r e a t h d t p h

Water requirement The q u a n t i t y f w a t e r r e g d l e o f t h o u r e e q u e d t o g r o w a c o p u n d e r n o r m a l f i l d c o d i t i o n s i s c a l l e d t h e w a t e r r e q u i r e m e n t I t m l u d i r r i g a t i o n w a t e r a n d n a t u r a l r a i

C o p s h a e a p a k p e r d o f w a t e r u e d u r i n g t h e g r o w t h I r r i g a t i o n s t m s m u s t b e p l a n e d t o m e t t h e r e p e o d s a t t h w a t e r s u p p l y

Table 1 Consumption of water by various crops

Crop	Consumption								
	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December
Alfalfa	33	67	54	78	4	56	44	34	
Beet		19	33	53	69	58	11	13	
Corn	11	20	41	38	86	67	7	310	
Potatoes	10	34	67	84	64	31	11	301	
			07	34	58	44		143	



is limited either in total quantity or rate of delivery. The consumptive use of water by crops has been determined by soil moisture studies or computed by well established statistical methods for many parts of the country. Table 1 shows how this varies by months during the growing season. The data presented in this table are for various locations and for different years and cannot be applied specifically.

**Plant-soil water relationships.** Soil of root zone depth is a storage reservoir for water used to sustain plant growth. How often this reservoir must be refilled by irrigation is determined by the storage capacity of the soil, depth of the root zone and water used by the crop. Table 2 shows approximate amounts of water held by soils of various textures and available for plant use. See Table 2.

Table 2 Amount of water in soil available to plants

Soil texture	Water capacity in ft. of soil
Coarse sandy loam	1 1/2-2
Silt loam	1 1/2-2 1/2
Heavy clay	1-2

Soil conditions, position of water table and other factors exert strong influences on root zone depth. Table 3 shows approximate root zone depths in well drained uniform soil.

Table 3 Approximate root zone depths for various crops

Crop	Root depth, ft.	Crop	Root depth, ft.
Alfalfa	6-10	Wheat	3
Corn	5-6	Cassava	1-2
Cotton	4-6	Tree	5-10

**Quality of irrigation water.** The quality of irrigation water is determined by total concentration of soluble mineral salts, sodium bicarbonate and such other substances as may be toxic to plants.

Growth of plants is affected by soluble salts since they restrict their ability to absorb water from the soil. When sodium salts are added by soil, unfavorable condition develop which restrict the entrance of water into plant, prevent plant emergence from the soil and make cultural practices difficult.

Accumulated soluble salt can be removed from the soil by leaching with irrigation water which moves them below the crop root zone into drain. Adverse sodium conditions are alleviated by the use of gypsum, farmyard manure and leaching.

**Methods of irrigation.** Water is applied to crops by surface furrow, by sprinkling or by subirrigation method. Surface irrigation with furrows is a common means of applying water to row crops. The flow carried in furrow between the rows of plant percolates into and replenishes the soil reservoir. However, on slope, water carried in furrow may result in soil erosion. The safe furrow

stream may be approximately computed by the formula  $Q = 10/S$  in which  $Q$  is the discharge of the stream in gallons per minute and  $S$  is the slope of the furrow in percentage. Maximum length of furrow depends on the size of the furrow stream and the rate at which water is absorbed by the soil. Flow control to furrows is accomplished by tubes, spiles or gated surface pipe (Fig 1).

Corrugations are small closely spaced furrows used in the irrigation of close growing crops. They are often employed on soils which crust badly when flooded.

**Flood irrigation** is a method of surface application which may be carried out with border strips, basins and contour or bench borders or by flooding from contour ditches.

**Border strip irrigation** is accomplished by advancing a sheet of water down a long narrow area between low ridges or borders. The moisture enters the soil as the sheet advances. The strip between borders must be well leveled and the grade must be uniform to prevent ponding. The ridges are usually low and rounded so that crops can be grown and harvested on them. This method is well adapted to close growing crops and pasture but it is also used for row crops. Hay and grain can be irrigated on slopes up to 3% and well established pastures up to 6%. Slopes below 1% are not liable to erosion damage and the uniformity of application is usually better than on steeper slope. Border strip irrigation, when well designed and operated, is economical of both labor and water.

Basin irrigation is adapted to flat lands. It is done by flooding a diked area to a predetermined depth and allowing water to enter the soil uniformly through the root zone. It is used for all types of crops including orchards. It is also economical of labor and water.

**Contour or bench border irrigation** is used on uniform gentle slopes with moderately deep soil. Border strips are placed across the slope on suitable grades. The width of each strip should remain



Fig 1 Irrigation of row crops by method of furrow control to achieve



Fig 2 f g t of w p by m f l p  
p k l s. T p g p h y i o t h i f l d t  
p m t h e f u r f m t h d

th me th o g h u t l n g t h d b m d n  
m u l t p l o f t h e u a l w e s p m c h n r y T h e  
t g t p r o c e t h a m e n f o b d t r p  
r b a s n i r r i g t d e n d g n w l t h r t h i p  
f p a l l

F l o d g f m n t d t h s i a m m o n i r r i  
g a t n m t h o d f r e l e g w g e r o p a n d p a t r e  
f a d i t h u n t o p g p h y w h h a d f u l t  
t h p f t h r m a n f w t e a p p l i n  
F e l d d t h r l l y a p e e d l n g t h e o n t o r  
l t h i d W i r r d t d l m t h m t f l o w  
r t h e n t r e i g v p a e a

S p n k l e r g a t n d n e b y m e a n s f p p e  
f e t h t d f w t e f r m a p u m p g p l n t o  
l a t e a l l e l g w h c h e l n g p k l e r h e d  
a e a p e d t a p p a t e i n t e r v a l s L a t a l l n e a  
m o v e d f o m i m t i m a m i e r q r e  
i f t h r p r m e t O e t y p f p n k l e r  
a p r f o a d d p p e a m e n o f w a t e r p p l a  
n p r t i u l l o c h r d ( F g 2 )  
A d t g s o f a p k l r g a t n a e l e s  
h e o l l r o e n n t e p l o p s i f o r m  
p p l a t n n m i s o l t y p n t r l f w a t e  
m e e t c p d m a d s d g a t n w t h t l n d  
h a p

S o m e d d a t a g e f m i k l g h i g t l  
t m e t n d h g h l a b r a d p r a t i g o t d s  
t n f p r n k l p t r n b y w d n d w a t e f e l  
e v a p a t u n t i h i d y e l m t e s i n c o m e  
e n w a p k l e y t m d e i g a d b n r m t h d o f  
m g p p h g r t y e d e d l h o d p e r a t  
g c o t

i r r i g a t o n i n a n d a n d h u m i d a r e a s T h e g e  
f g r e d e p u l l e a g n b o t h n d  
o d h m d r e g t a e g n t h e m i n g f

t o r m f t e n l c k f w t e r n o t f l a l a t a t o b e  
i r r i g a t e d f l o w e r i r r i g a t i o n p r g r a m m i n g i f  
t e n e a i r w h n t h e f a r m e r d o e s n i d e p e n d o n  
n t u r a l r a n f a l l f r e r p g g o w t h C o o d y l l a r e  
o b t n e d b y m a i n t a n g h i g h i f f i t i l y a n d  
g o o d s o l t i l h a n d b y u n g g d r p v r i e t t e

T h e r e i s l i t t l e d i f f e r e n c e i n t h e p r i n c i p l e o f e r p  
p r o d u c t o n u n d e r i r r i g a t o n i n h u m i d r e g i o n s a n d  
i n a r i d o n e T h e p r o g r a m m i n g o f w a t e r a p p l i c a  
t i o n i s m r e d i f f i c i l t i n h u m i d a r e a s h w e v r b e  
c a u s e n a t u r l p r e c i p i t a t i o n e s n e t b e p r e d i c t e d a c  
c u r a t l y C l i m a t e c o n d i t i o n s u a l l y m k e t h  
s p r n k l e r m e t h o d o f i r r i g a t i o n m r e p r o f i t a b l e i n  
r e g i o n o f h i g h a n n u a l r a i n f a l l S e A g r i  
c u l t u r a l m a c h i n e r y A G R I C U L T U R A L O I L A N D  
C R O P P R A C T I C E S P L A N T W A T E R R E L A T I O N S O F  
T E R R A C I N G ( A G R I C U L T U R A L )

[10W]

B i b l i o g r a p h y O W I s a e l e n I r r i g a t o P r i n  
p l s a d P r c t c s 2 d e d 190 A S t f l r u d  
( e d ) F i e n U S D A Y e a r b o o k A g r 1955

## Isanomal temperatures

A t t m p e r a t u r e s r t h r e s u h a s a n d o a t e m  
p e r t r e t h a t h w e q u a l d e p a r t u r e s f r m  
t a r d a T h a t n d a r d u a l l y t h l n g t r m a  
e a g e t e m p e a t r e f r a c h p l a e b u t m a y b e t h e  
a g e f r a n e n t r e a e a r t h e a g f r t h  
p l a c s l a t u d e

S e v e r i t y o f a u n m r h e t w a e c a n b e h o w n  
b y a m p o f t m p e r a t u r e a n o m a l e s d i f f e r n e e s f  
t h a v e r a g e t e m p e a t r e s f a s i n g l e w e e k m n t h  
r a e o n f r m t h e l o n g t r m a e r a g e s f r t h a t p e  
r i d P l a e s w i t h t h e m e d p a r t u r e s o a n m a l i e s  
a e j a d b y a m a l l i n e s

F r m l n g t e r m s a g e s f m o n t h l y r e a s o n a l  
t e m p a t r e i m a n y p l a c e s n t h e w r l d t h a e r  
a g t e m p r a t u r e f r e a c h l a t u d n a l b a n d c a n b e  
c o m p u t e d D i f f e r e n c e b t w n t h e s l a t u d n a l a v  
e a g a n d t h o a t n d i d l p n t s c a n f m a  
t m p r a t r e a m a l y m a p t o h o w t h e e f f e c t s f  
o n e t a l t y S A I R T E M P E R A T U R E C O N T I N U  
T A L I T Y W E A T H E R A N D C L I M A T E [ A C ]

## Isentropic flow

T h e f l w f f l i d s s i n t r p i c w h e n i t e n t r y  
i d t i c l i l l p o i t i n t h e f l w l e n t r y  
f l w n b e a p p e c h e d f r f l u i d f l o w i n g t h e r i n  
d u c t i s v t h e t i d e s s f a c e o f a b o d y B e  
c a e t h e e n t r y f f t h e f l u i d a t h e r m o d y n m i c  
p r p e r t y m u l r t h e n t h a l p y o r e n e r g y f a  
d d t h a l e f t h e t o p y i s f i x e d b y t h t e  
f t h f l d F o r a p u e u b t n e i n t h e b n c f  
g r a t y p i l l a r y l e t r c y t y a n d m a g n e t i c  
t p y s a f c t i n f t w o i n d e p n d n t p p t  
f r e x m p l t h p r e s u e a n d t m p e a t u e f r  
u g l i h s f l u i d ( T H E R M O D Y N A M I C p r y c r  
v l e s )

O f t h e s i m p l e s t e x a m p l e s o f n t r p i c f l w  
f a f d t h r g h a n o z z l e w h e r e t h e f l u i d  
a c e l e r a t e d t o h i g h e r l o c i t y b y p r e r g a d  
t h f l w c l o s e l y p p r x m a t d h v t h a

is limited either in total quantity or rate of delivery. The consumptive use of water by crops has been determined by soil moisture studies or computed by well established statistical methods for many parts of the country. Table 1 shows how this varies by months during the growing season. The data presented in this table are for various locations and for different years and cannot be applied specifically.

**Plant-soil water relationships.** Soil of root zone depth is a storage reservoir for water used to sustain plant growth. How often this reservoir must be refilled by irrigation is determined by the storage capacity of the soil depth of the root zone and water used by the crop. Table 2 shows approximate amounts of water held by soils of various textures and available for plant use. See Table 2.

Table 2 Amount of water in soil available to plants

Soil texture	Water capacity /ft depth
Coarsely loamy	1½-3
Sandy loam	1½-1¾
Silt loam	1½-2
Heavy clay	1-1.5

Soil conditions, position of water table and other factors exert strong influences on root zone depth. Table 3 shows approximate root zone depths in well drained uniform soil.

Table 3 Approximate root zone depths for various crops

Crop	Root depth ft	Crop	Root depth ft
Alfalfa	6-10	Potatoes	3
Corn	5-6	Cucumbers	1
Cotton	4-6	Trucks	10

**Quality of irrigation water.** The quality of irrigation water is determined by total concentration of soluble mineral salts, sodium bicarbonate and such other substances as may be toxic to plants.

Growth of plants is affected by soluble salts since they restrict their ability to absorb water from the soil. When sodium salts are added by soil unfavorable conditions develop which restrict the entrance of water into plants, prevent plant emergence from the soil and make cultural practices difficult.

Accumulated soluble salts can be removed from the soil by leaching with irrigation water which moves them below the crop root zone or into drain. Adverse sodium conditions are alleviated by the use of gypsum, barnyard manure and leaching.

**Methods of irrigation.** Water is applied to crops by surface furrows, by sprinkling or by subirrigation methods. Surface irrigation with furrows is a common means of applying water to row crops. The flow carried in furrow between the rows of plants percolates into and replenishes the soil reservoir. However, on level water carried in furrows may result in silting. The safe furrow

stream may be approximately computed by the formula  $Q = 10/S$  in which  $Q$  is the safe furrow stream in gallons per minute and  $S$  is the slope of the furrow in percentage. Maximum length of furrow depends on the size of the furrow stream and the rate at which water is absorbed by the soil. Flow control to furrows is accomplished by siphon tubes, piles or gated surface pipe (Fig. 1).

Corrugations are small closely spaced furrows used in the irrigation of close growing crops. They are often employed on soils which crust badly when flooded.

Flood irrigation is a method of surface application which may be carried out with border strips, basins and contour or bench borders or by flooding from contour ditches.

Border strip irrigation is accomplished by advancing a sheet of water down a long narrow area between low ridges or borders. The moisture enters the soil as the sheet advances. The strip between borders must be well leveled and the grade must be uniform to prevent ponding. The ridges are usually low and rounded so that crops can be grown and harvested on them. This method is well adapted to close growing crops and pasture but it is also used for row crops. Hay and grain can be irrigated on slopes up to 3% and well established pastures up to 6%. Slopes below 1% are liable to erosion damage and the uniformity of application is usually better than on steeper slopes. Border strip irrigation when well designed and operated is economical of both labor and water.

Basin irrigation is adapted to flat land. It is done by flooding a diked area to a predetermined depth and allowing water to enter the soil uniformly through the root zone. It is used for all types of crops including orchards. It is also economical of labor and water.

Contour or bench border irrigation is used on uniform gentle slopes with moderately deep soils. Border strips are placed across the slope on suitable grades. The width of each strip should remain



Fig. 1 Irrigation of row crop (beet) by method of siphon to control flow to each row.



Fig 2 Irrigation of water by means of vol. g  
sprinklers. Topography is too this field  
per the use of surface methods.

the same thing that length and be made in  
multiples of the unit water power machinery. The  
irrigation process is the same as for border strip  
irrigation, and depends on whether the water is  
applied or not.

Flood irrigation is the most common method of  
irrigation. It is used in areas where the topography  
is such that water can be applied to the land  
by gravity. It is a simple method, but it is  
not very efficient. It is used in areas where  
the water is abundant and the land is flat.

Center pivot irrigation is a method of irrigation  
that is used in arid and semi-arid areas. It  
consists of a central pivot point from which  
a series of wheels or risers are spaced at  
intervals. Water is applied to the crops  
by the wheels or risers. It is a very efficient  
method of irrigation.

Another method of irrigation is the use of  
sprinklers. Sprinklers are used in areas where  
the water is not abundant. They are used to  
apply water to the crops in a uniform manner.

Some of the advantages of sprinkler irrigation are  
that it is a simple method, it is efficient, and  
it is suitable for use in areas where the water  
is not abundant. It is a very important method  
of irrigation.

Irrigation in arid and humid areas. The use of  
irrigation in arid areas is very important. In  
humid areas, irrigation is not as important.

For the first time, the water in the land is not  
irrigated. However, it is not programming it.  
The farmer does not depend on natural rainfall  
for crop growth. Good yields are obtained by  
maintaining high soil fertility and good soil  
tilth and by using good crop varieties.

There is little difference in the principles of crop  
production under irrigation in humid regions and  
in arid areas. The programming of water applica-  
tion is more difficult in arid areas, however, be-  
cause natural precipitation is not predictable ac-  
curately. Climatic conditions usually make the  
practical method of irrigation more profitable in  
regions of high average annual rainfall. See AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY, AGRICULTURAL OIL AND CROP PRACTICES, PLANT WATER RELATIONS OF TERRACING (AGRICULTURAL).

[10W]

Bibliography: O. W. I.rael, *Engineering Principles of Practice*, 2d ed., 1900. A. S. H. Rud-  
(ed.) *U.S. Yearbook of Agriculture*, 1905.

## Isanomal temperatures

Air temperatures at other such as soil or sea tem-  
peratures that have equal parts from some  
standard. The standard is usually the long term  
average temperature for the place. It may be the  
average for the entire area or the average for the  
place.

Severity of a summer heat wave can be shown  
by a map of temperature anomalies—differences from  
the average temperature for the same week in the  
same month. The long term average for that per-  
iod is used with the same departures. Anomalies  
are indicated by small letters.

From long term averages of monthly and  
time periods in many places, the world average  
temperature for each latitude is determined. Be-  
cause of differences between the latitudes, the  
averages are shown on a map to show the effect of  
continentalities. See AIR TEMPERATURE, COASTALITY, WEATHER AND CLIMATE.

[A.C.]

## Isentropic flow

The flow of a fluid is entropic when the entropy  
is constant at all points. The flow is isentropic  
flow. It is a flow in which the fluid is moving  
without friction. It is a flow in which the fluid  
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a flow in which the fluid is moving without friction.  
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The flow is isentropic. It is a flow in which  
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a flow in which the fluid is moving without friction.  
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is limited either in total quantity or rate of delivery. The consumptive use of water by crops has been determined by soil moisture studies or computed by well established statistical methods for many parts of the country. Table 1 shows how this varies by months during the growing season. The data presented in this table are for various locations and for different years and cannot be applied specifically.

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Table 2 Amount of water in soil available to plants

Soil texture	Water capacity in /ft depth
Coarsely sandy soil	1½
Sandy loam	1½ - 1¾
Silt loam	1¾ - 2
Heavy clay	2½ - 3 in cre

Soil conditions position of water table and other factors exert strong influences on root zone depth. Table 3 shows approximate root zone depths in well drained uniform soil.

Table 3 Approximate root zone depths for various crops

Crop	Root zone depth ft	Crop	Root zone depth ft
Alfalfa	6-10	Potatoes	-3
Corn	5-6	Groceries	1
Cotton	4-6	Trees	5-10

**Quality of irrigation water.** The quality of irrigation water is determined by total concentration of soluble mineral salts, sodium bicarbonate and such other substances as may be toxic to plants.

Growth of plants is affected by soluble salts insofar as they restrict their ability to absorb water from the soil. When sodium salts are added to the soil, unfavorable conditions develop which restrict the entrance of water into plants, prevent plant emergence from the soil and make cultural practices difficult.

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stream may be approximately computed by the formula  $Q = 10/S$  in which  $Q$  is the safe furrow stream in gallons per minute and  $S$  is the slope of the furrow in percentage. Maximum length of furrow depends on the size of the furrow stream and the rate at which water is absorbed by the soil. Flow control to furrows is accomplished by siphon tubes, piles or gated surface pipe (Fig 1).

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Fig 1 Regulation of row crop (beets) by means of siphon tubes to control the flow to each furrow.



2. I got f w p by m f l g  
Kl r. T p graphy t th fl d to  
erm th use of r m thod

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ba irrigat d p d go whether the tr p  
les r l ev l

Flood ng f m t d the i a e m m t i  
m th d f l e g w i g e r p and p tu  
l d with ev t p o g a p h y wh h i difficult  
th p e f oth me f w a t e a p p l a t n  
F l d u t h e e c l y p e d a l g t h e o t u r  
f i b l a n d W t e i d t e d f r o m t h e t f l w  
o r t h i t e r r e i g e r p a

Spri kler i r r i g a t i o n d o e b y m a n s f p p  
l u n e s t h t c o d e t w t e r f r m a p m p i n g p l n t s  
l a t r a l l i n e s l o g w b c h r e l i n g p i k l e r h e a d  
a p s e d t a p p r o p t e i t e r v a l L a t e l i n e  
e m o v e d f m t m e t o t m e a s m t q u i  
m e n t s f i t h c p a m t O n t y p f s p k l  
o v e r p e i r t e d p p a m e a n f w t e p p l  
t u r u e l y r e c h a d (F g 2)

A d t y s o f p i k l k t o a r e l e s  
h a n f o r m n t p l p e s u n i f r m  
a p p l u n m t s l t y p e s c t r o l f w a t e r  
t m e e t p d m d d r i g t w t h t i n d  
t h p n g

S o n d s a d t a g e f s p n k l n h g t i l  
n e s t m t a n d h i g h l a b o d o p t g o t s d  
t r i o n o f p r i k l e r p u t r n b y w d n d w t f l  
e r a p o t r a t i h t d r y l m t I m c a e  
n e w s p n k l y t e m d e s g n m d b e t t r m e t h d f  
m o r i g p p h e g r a t l y e d e d l b o a d p t  
i n g t o t

I r r i g a t o n i n a n d h u m i d a r e a s T h e g e  
f r i g a t e d m s t i l l n e a g a b o t h r i d  
d h u m d e g n s i a d g n t h l m t u g f

to i often l ck of water n t f l a n i a e a t l  
i r g a t d H o w e r i r r i g a t i o n p r g r a m m i g i o f  
t e e a i e r w h e n t h e f a r m e r d o e s n t d e n d n  
n a t u r a l r i f a l l f o r r o p g r w t l G o o d y i e l d a r e  
o b t a i n e d l y m i n t a i s g h i g h m d f e r t i l i t y a n d  
g o o d o i l t u l t h a n d l y u i n g g o o d m p v a r i e t i e

There is l t i l e d i f f e r e n c e i n t h p r i n c i p l e f o r p  
p r o d u c t i o n u n d e r i r r i g a t i o n i n h u m i d r e g n a n d  
i n a r i d o n e s . T h e p r g r a m m i n g f w a t e r a p p l i a  
t i n s m r e d i f f e r e n c e i n h u m d a r e l o w e r l e  
e u n a t u r a l p r e c i p i t a t i o n n t l e p r e d i t d a  
c u r t l y C l i m a t e c o n d i t i o n s a l l y m k t h  
p r i n k l e r m e t h o d o f i r r i g a t i o n m r p r o f i t a b l e i n  
r e g i o s o f h i g h a r a g e a n n u a l r a n f l l S e A g r i  
c u l t u r a l m a c h i n e r y A g r i c u l t u r a l o i l a n d  
c r o p p r a c t i c e s I l a n t w a t e r r e l a t i o n s o f  
T e r r a c i n g ( A g r i c u l t u r a l )

[ I D W ]

B i b l i o g r a p h y O W I r a e l s e I r r i g a t i o n P r i n  
c i p l e d P a c t e s 2 d e d 190 A S t e f f e r d  
( e d ) W a t e U S D A Y e a r b o o k A g r 1955

# Isanomal temperatures

A i r t e m p e r a t u r e t h e r f a s o f o r e a t e m  
p r a t r e s t h a t h w e q u a l d e p a r t u r e f o m m  
t d d T h i s t a n d a r d u a l l y t h e l o n g t r m a  
e r a g t e m p e r a t u r e f r e a h p l a c e b u t m a y b e t h e  
a g e f r a n e n t r e t e o r t h e a e r a g f t h  
p l a t u d e

S e r i t y o f m m r h a t w e a n b e h w n  
b y a m a p o f t e m p e r a t u r e m a l e s d i f f r n e e s f  
t h e a e r g e t m p a t u r e f r a g l e w k m t h  
o s e n f r o m t h l n g t e r m a v e r a g e s f r t h a t p e r i o d  
P l e s w i t h t h a m e d e p a r t r e s r a n m l i e s  
r e j n e d b y a n m a l l o n

F r m l o g i t e m a r a g e s f m n i t h l y e a s o n l  
t e m p e r a t u r e m y p l a c e s t h w r l d t h e r  
a g t e m p e r a t u r e f e h l a t i d n a l t n d a b e  
o m p u t e d D i f f e r e n c e b e t w e e n t h e l a t i t u d i n l a  
a g e s n d t h e a t d i d i a l p o n t s a n f r m a  
t m p e r a t u r e a m l y m a p t h o w t h e e f f e c t f  
n t a l t y S e e A i r T e m p e r a t u r e C o n t i n u e  
T A L I T Y W E A T H E R A N D C L I M A T E [ A C ]

# Isentropic flow

T h e f l w f f l u i d s e n t r o p i c w h m t r p y  
i d e t i c i t a l l p o t i n t h e f l o w I e n t r o p i c  
f l w c a b a p p r o c h e d f f l u i d f l o w n g t h r  
a d c t o v e t h e u t d u r f c e o f a b o d y B e  
a e t h e n t p y o f t h f l d t h r m o d y n a m i  
p p r t y m a r t a l o t h e m t h a l p y e n e r g y o f a  
f l d t h e l o f t h e t r p y f i x e d b y t h t a t e  
f i t h f l u d F a p m b t e i n t h e b n e e o f  
g r t y c a p i l l a r i t y l e c t t y a n d m a g t i m e  
t p y i a f u c t i n f t w o d p e d t p r p t i  
f r x m p l e t h e p n d t m p r a t f o r a  
g l p h i c e f l i d ( s e T H E R M O D Y N A M I C P R I C  
I P L E S )

O e f t h e m p l e s t m m p l f i t r o p c f l w  
f a f l d i t h g h n o z z l e w h e t h e f l u d i  
l e r t e d t h i g h e l o c t y b y a p r e g r d i  
t T s f l w c l e l y p p r x m a t e d b y t h e a s

assumptions that it is one dimensional adiabatic and frictionless (reversible)

In an actual nozzle the fluid flow is not completely isentropic because (1) the fluid shear stress at the walls is not zero thereby introducing some friction (2) a significant rate of heat transfer can occur between fluid and walls as in a rocket nozzle (3) a significant rate of mass transfer or diffusion may occur normal to the stream lines thus producing local changes of entropy in the real flow and (4) chemical reactions can occur in the flow and thus cause a local change of entropy

Although the real flow in a nozzle is only approximated by an isentropic flow the latter flow can be computed quickly in comparison with the long and tedious calculations required for the real flow. Hence isentropic flow is often used as a basis of comparison of the real flow with the ideal flow. Thus the figure of merit for flow in a nozzle is defined by

$$\text{Nozzle efficiency} = V/V_0$$

where  $V$  is the actual measured velocity issuing from the nozzle and  $V_0$  is a hypothetical velocity for isentropic flow of the same fluid from the same initial state to the same exit pressure as the real flow

The concept of isentropic flow is applied fully to many applications for fluid flow inside ducts and outside of various shaped bodies. Isentropic flow is also used for predicting such flows as those of perfect gases, real gases dissociating and chemically reacting systems, liquid two-phase single and multicomponent systems and plasma.

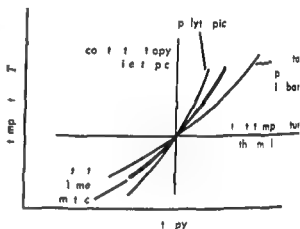
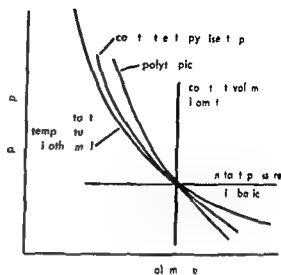
Isentropic fluid flow can be obtained in irreversible processes by selecting a process in which the local entropy could increase and then providing for sufficient heat transfer to maintain the entropy constant at all points. See FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES, GAS DYNAMICS [JKA:STF]

Bibliography: J. H. Keenan, *Thermodynamics* 1941; J. H. Keenan and J. Kaye, *Gas Tables* 1948

## Isentropic process

A frictionless piston moving in an insulated cylinder may be used to depict this thermodynamic process. Systems which are thermally insulated from their surroundings undergo processes without benefit of any heat transfer and such processes are referred to as adiabatic. Because the isentropic process is conducted without any displacement effect and because it receives no transferred heat, it is sometimes called the reversible adiabatic process.

Work done during an isentropic expansion is produced at the expense of the amount of internal energy stored in the nonflow or closed system. Thus the useful expansion of a gas is accompanied by a marked decrease in temperature, tangibly demonstrating the decrease of internal energy stored in the system. The path is indicated on the diagram. See THERMODYNAMIC PROCESSES.



Isentropic process compared to other thermodynamic processes

For gases the isentropic process can be expressed as

$$P_1 V_1^k = P_2 V_2^k = \text{constant}$$

where  $P$  is pressure in pounds per square foot absolute,  $V$  is specific volume in cubic feet per pound, and  $k$  is the ratio between the specific heat at constant pressure and the specific heat at constant volume for the gas. It can be closely approximated by the values of 1.67 for monatomic gases and 1.40 for diatomic gases. [JKA]

## Isentropic surfaces

Surfaces along which the entropy and potential temperature of air are constant. Potential temperature in meteorological usage is defined by the relation

$$\theta = T \left( \frac{1000}{P} \right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma-1}}$$

in which  $T$  is the air temperature,  $P$  is atmospheric pressure expressed in millibars,  $\gamma$  is the specific heat of air at constant pressure, and  $c_p$  is the specific heat at constant volume. Since the potential temperature of an air parcel does not change if the processes acting on it are adiabatic (no exchange





laurel forests similar to those that disappeared from the Mediterranean as living forms long before the glacial epoch and are now found in its Tertiary fossil bed. The unique mammal life of Tasmania, the dragon trees of Socotra and the silverswords and tree plantains of Hawaii are other examples of ancient forms of life surviving in the isolation of islands. See EVOLUTION. ORGANIC POPULATION DISPERSAL. [KLE]

**Bibliography** S. A. Cain, *Foundations of Plant Geography* 1944; R. Good, *The Geography of the Flowering Plants* 2d ed. 1953; D. Lack, *Darwin's Finches* 1947; E. D. Merrill, *Plant Life of the Pacific World* 1945; A. H. Wallace, *Island Life* 1881; E. C. Zimmerman, *Insects of Hawaii* vol. 1 1948.

## Isoantigen

An immunologically active protein or polysaccharide present in some but not all individuals in a particular species. These compounds initiate the formation of antibodies when introduced into other individuals of the species that lack the isoantigen. Like all antigens, they are also active in stimulating antibody production in heterologous species. The ABO, MN, and Rh blood factors in man constitute important examples. Consequently elaborate precautions for typing are required in blood transfusion. Analogous situations exist for the bloods of most other animal species. Isoantigens are also believed responsible for the ultimate failure of tissue grafts between individuals of the same species except those of the same genetic constitution or those that have been rendered tolerant. A situation of consequence for the surgical procedure of skin grafting.

Isoantigens are to be distinguished from autoantigens which are antigens active even in the species from which they are derived and in individuals who already possess the antigen. Brain and lens tissue as well as sperm constitute examples. The exceptions to the usual rule of non-antigenicity for self constituents may be more apparent than real, however, since the substances cited are all protected to some degree from contact with the blood and thus normally do not reach the sites of antibody formation except after experimental manipulation. Autoantibodies may also be produced in various disease states, perhaps as a result of modification of normal tissue by the infecting microorganism or by altered host metabolism, for example, the paroxysmal hemoglobinuria observed in syphilis, acquired hemolytic anemia, or some of the manifestations in rheumatic fever. See ANTIBODY; ANTIGEN; BLOOD GROUPS; POLYSACCHARIDE; PROTEIN. [HPT]

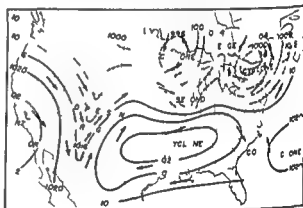
## Isohar (atomic physics)

One of two or more atoms which have a common mass number  $A$  but which differ in atomic number  $Z$ . Thus, although isobars possess approximately equal mass, they differ in chemical properties

they are atoms of different elements. Isobars whose atomic numbers differ by unity cannot both be stable; one will inevitably decay into the other by  $\beta$  emission ( $Z \rightarrow Z + 1$ ) or  $\beta$  emission ( $Z \rightarrow Z - 1$ ) or electron capture ( $Z \rightarrow Z - 1$ ). There are many examples of stable isobaric pairs, for instance  $\text{Ti}^{50}$  ( $Z = 24$ ) and  $\text{Cr}^{50}$  ( $Z = 26$ ), and four examples of stable isobaric triplets. At most values of  $A$ , the number of known radioactive isobars exceeds the number of stable ones. See ELECTRON CAPTURE; RADIOACTIVITY. [HED]

## Isohar (meteorology)

A line passing through points at which a constant value of the air pressure exists within a specified surface of reference. Central regions of closed isobars on the globe reveal systems of relative high and low pressure as shown on synoptic weather charts based upon simultaneous barometric observations at many stations. For such charts, the surface of reference is usually the geoid (mean sea level). In this case, the data represent pressures reduced to sea level, which yield unrealistic isobars over land. Horizontal pressure gradients determined from real isobars correlate well with the wind



Fundamental shapes of isobars. (After R. Abromowitz, *L. P. H. 1940*; *Met. of Nat. Acad. Sci. Council* 1940).

velocity about 300–800 m above the surface (see AIR PRESSURE; ATMOSPHERIC HIGH; ATMOSPHERIC LOW). The illustration presents a fictitious weather chart designed to portray the configuration of isobars generally observed. [LPH]

## Isoharic process

A frictionless, thermodynamic process of a gas in which the heat transfer to or from the gas counterbalances a volume change at constant pressure. Such a process is illustrated by the expansion of gas when it is heated to lift a weight or do other work without regard. Mathematically

$$Q_P = W + U_2 - U_1 = \int_1^2 P dV + U_2 - U_1 \\ = P \int_1^2 dV + U_2 - U_1 = (P_2 V_2 + U_2) - (P_1 V_1 + U_1)$$



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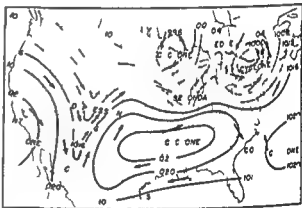
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Fundamental shapes of isobars (After R. Abernethy, L. P. Harriss, *Meteorology* National Academy of Sciences, 1940)

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## Isoharic process

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$$Q_P = W + U_2 - U_1 = \int_1^2 P dV + U_2 - U_1 \\ = P \int_1^2 V + U_2 - U_1 = (P V_2 + U_2) - (P V_1 + U_1)$$



ing agent will cau = coagulation Like i e vi co  
ity changes often reach = minimum at or near the  
i oelectric point See COLLOID ELECTROPHORESIS  
ION PERMEABLE MEMBRANE PROTEIN [W O M]

## Isoelectronic sequence

A term u ed in pectro copy to de ignate the et of  
spectra produced by different chemical elements  
ionized in uch a way that their atoms or ions con  
tain the ame number of electron The following  
equence is an example

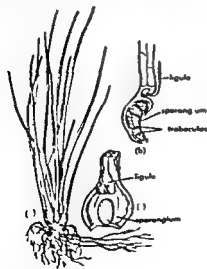
De ionation of pec trum	CaI	ScII	TiIII	ViV	CrV	MnVI
Emittin <sub>g</sub> atom or ion	Ca	Sc <sup>+</sup>	Ti <sup>++</sup>	V <sup>+++</sup>	Cr <sup>++++</sup>	Mn <sup>+++++</sup>
Atomic num ber Z	20	21	22	23	24	25

Since the neutral atom of the = element each con  
tain Z electron removal of one electron from  
candium two from titanium and o forth yields a  
erie of ions all of which have 20 electron Their  
spectra are therefore qualitatively imilar but the  
pectral terms (energy level) increa e approxi  
mately in proportion to the quare of the core  
charge ju t a they depend on Z in the one-elec  
tron equence H He Be and = forth (see  
ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA) A a re ult the  
ucce ive pectra hift progre ively toward  
horter wavelength soon reaching the vacuum ul  
traviolet region Isoelectronic equence are u eful  
in predicting unknown pectra of ion l belonging to  
a equence in which other pectra are known

[F A J]

## Isoetales

A monotypic order of the plant ulphylum Lycop  
ida containing only one genu *Isoetes* The e  
plants are called quillw rts becau e in all 63 pe-



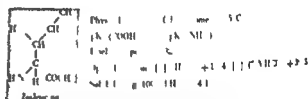
I oet s (a) E t e pla t (b) Long t d nal sect o f l f  
bas (c) Face ew of ve tral s face of l f ba e  
(From A J Eames E W S H a d K S W I  
Bot y y cple a d p oblem 5th ed McG aw-H I  
1955)

cies the leave are long and narrow with a poe  
like ba = pirally arranged upon an underground  
cormlike tructure See STEM (BOTANY) Mo t e  
cies are emiaquatic although a few are terrestrial  
They are confined to the coler regi n of the  
v orld

Morj hologi t differ in their opini n regarding  
the relation hip of the group They are like the  
Selaginella in having ligule two kind of  
pore (heteroporus) and in producing two kind  
of gametophyte They are different frm the other  
Lycopida in having multiciliate perm in lacking  
a u pen or (a chain of cell which erse to put  
the embryo in a favorable o sition in relati n to  
it food supply) and in po e ing a econdary  
meritem which develop sme econdary ti ue  
(see MERISTEM LATERAL) The pre ence of a pe  
cial root producing re gion which devel p new di  
chotomous (forked) root each year together with  
their anatomy ugge ts a cl s relation hip with  
the f il Lycopida = pecially the genu *Pleuro  
metia* The phyl genetic connecti n between *Pleuro  
metia* and *Isoetes* is accepted by many l tant and  
for this re on the familie Pleuro metiaceae and I  
etaceae are often included in the Isoetales See  
PALAEOBOTANY LEURONIALES TRACHEOPHYTES  
[F A J]

Bibliography See LYCOPIDA

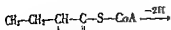
## Isoleucine



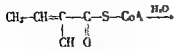
An amino acid c n idered = ential f r normal  
growth of animal The amino acid are character  
ized physically by the following (1) the pK<sub>a</sub> or  
the de ionization constant of the various titratable  
group (2) the i electric point or pI H<sub>2</sub>N which  
a dipolar ion de e not migrate in an electric field  
(3) the p<sub>1</sub> al = tati n r the r tati n imparted  
to a beam of plane-p larized light (fre quentl the  
D line of the o lium spectrum) pa ing thr gh  
1 decimeter of a lution of 100 gram in 100 ml  
(4) olubility See EQUILIBRIUM IONIC I OLE  
TRIC POINT OPTICAL ACTIVITY SPECTROPHOTOMET  
RIC ANALY I

The l i ynthe i f l leucine ce urs w l = pyru  
ate and α ketoglutarate react to f rm α-aceto  
al hydr xylutarate which undergo e rearrangement  
and rel t n to α β thidra x β methyl al rate  
Dehydration t the α keto acid and tran aminati n  
complete the l i ynthe i (see AMINO ACID) M t  
r l l f the ezyme c n c n ed al cat lyz the  
anal go i reati n i valine l i ynthe i See  
VALINE

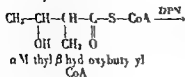
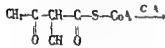
uring metabolic leg rati n the f r t t i are  
l aminati n and oxidati le arboxyl ti n f rm  
ing α m thylglutaryl benz m A (α m thylglutaryl  
C A) Tl f l l wing p iene tak pla



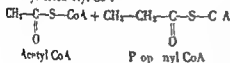
Methyl crotyl CoA



Tyl CoA

 $\alpha$  Methyl  $\beta$  hydroxybutyryl CoA

Methyl acetoethyl CoA



Acetyl CoA

Propionyl CoA

[EAD]

## Isomerism molecular

That molecular isomerism was introduced by J. J. Berzelius for different chemical compounds having the same empirical formula but different molecular formulae. The possibility that the same elementary composition can denote two or more substances was derived from organic structural theory which requires only that the atomic number of each element (e.g. 4 for carbon, 1 for hydrogen) be fully satisfied. Thus the identity of organic compounds is not of the arrangement of the atoms in the molecule.

**Chain isomerism** Among the alkane  $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$  isomerism results from the possibility of linking the same number of carbon atoms to produce either a straight chain or branched chains. Simple  $\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10}$  presents butane  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$  and isobutane  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$ . A third member of the series  $\text{C}_5\text{H}_{12}$  represents pentane  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$  and isopentane  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$  and neopentane  $\text{C}(\text{CH}_3)_4$ .

Position isomerism The position of functional groups in a molecule is of great importance in determining its properties. Thus the number of different types of bonds in a hydrocarbon chain is determined by the number of substituents. For example, in the hydrocarbon toluene  $\text{C}_7\text{H}_8$ , the methyl group can be attached to any of the seven carbon atoms, but all these positions are equivalent, and all derivatives of toluene are identical. In the case of disubstituted types of hydrocarbons, the positions of the substituents are not equivalent.

$\text{C}_6\text{H}_6$  7 (for example  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$  and  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$ )

If more than one hydrogen atom is replaced by atoms of one or more different elements more than one isomer is possible and each element may provide the principle how ever remain the same the number of different type of hydrogen in a given molecule substituted isomers are possible. Thus  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_2\text{X}_2$  (where Z and X may be the same or different elements) represents  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{X}$  and  $\text{CH}_2\text{CHX}_2$  and  $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{X}_2$  represents  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{X}$ ,  $\text{CH}_3\text{CHXCH}_2\text{X}$ ,  $\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{X}$ ,  $\text{CH}_2\text{CHXCH}_2\text{X}$ , and  $\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{X}$ . The second and third will be identical if Z and X represent the same element.

In unsaturated compounds (simple alkenes and alkynes) the number of unique isomers for the double or triple bond determines the number of possible isomers. Thus a four-carbon alkene (or alkyne) has the simple term for which positional isomerism is possible:  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_3$  and  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2$  or  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CHCH}_3$  and  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2$ .

In symmetrical cycloalkanes (cycloalkanes and benzene) all hydrogens are equivalent and only two different isomers are possible for the existence of positional isomers. The number of such isomers depends on the size of the ring when the number of substituents (for example Z and CH) is limited to two. Thus there are two disubstituted cyclopropanes (1,1 and 1,2), three disubstituted cyclobutanes (1,1, 1,2 and 1,3), and four disubstituted cyclopentanes (1,1, 1,2, 1,3 and 1,4). The nature of the benzene ring limits disubstituted benzenes to three (1,2 (ortho), 1,3 (meta), and 1,4 (para)). Where there are three identical substituents in  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_3\text{Z}_3$  there are three positional isomers possible (1,2,3-; 1,2,4- and 1,3,5-). But for  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{Z}_2\text{X}_2$  there are six (1,2-; 2,3-; 3,4-; 1,3-; 1,4-; 2,4-). A method for determining the absolute position of substituents in benzene derivatives up to the experimental product in a position isomerism from magnetic resonance (Kornfeldt).



Cycloprop



Cyclobuta



Cyclopentane



Benzene

When a hydrocarbon is not symmetrical (cycloalkanes, cycloalkenes, and cycloalkynes) the positions of the substituents are not equivalent and the type of hydrocarbon and the positions of the substituents will with the substituents which are poly substituted isomers get multiple isomers. The number of isomers in a symmetrical cycloalkane system is determined by the number of substituents and the positions of the substituents.

ing agent will cause coagulation Likewise viscosity changes often reach a minimum at or near the isoelectric point See COLLOID ELECTROPHORESIS ION PERMEABLE MEMBRANE PROTEIN [WOM]

## Isoelectric sequence

A term used in spectroscopy to designate the set of spectra produced by different chemical elements ionized in such a way that their atoms or ions contain the same number of electrons The following sequence is an example

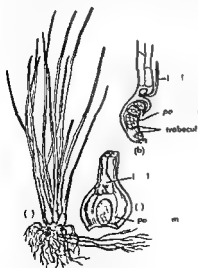
Designation of spectrum	CaI	ScII	TiIII	VIV	CrV	MnVI
Emitting atom or ion	Ca	Sc <sup>+</sup>	Ti <sup>++</sup>	V <sup>+++</sup>	Cr <sup>++++</sup>	Mn <sup>+++++</sup>
Atomic number Z	20	21	22	23	24	25

Since the neutral atoms of these elements each contain Z electrons removal of one electron from scandium two from titanium and so forth yields a series of ions all of which have 20 electrons Their spectra are therefore qualitatively similar but the spectral terms (energy levels) increase approximately in proportion to the square of the core charge just as they depend on Z in the one electron sequence H He Be and so forth (see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA) As a result the successive spectra shift progressively toward shorter wavelength soon reaching the vacuum ultraviolet region Isoelectric sequences are useful in predicting unknown spectra of ions belonging to a sequence in which other spectra are known

[FAJ]

## Isoetales

A monotypic order of the plant subphylum Lycopodiata containing only one genus *Isoetes* These plants are called quillworts because in all 64 spe-



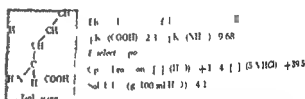
*Isoetes* (a) Entire plant (b) Longitudinal section of base (c) Face view of ventral surface of leaf base (From A J Eamson & E W Safford, *Adaptation and Evolution in Plants*, McGraw-Hill, 1955)

cies the leaves are long and narrow with a spoon-like base spirally arranged upon an underground cormlike structure See STEM (BOTANY) Most species are epiaquatic although a few are terrestrial They are confined to the cooler regions of the world

Morphologists differ in their opinions regarding the relationship of the group They are like the Selaginellales in having ligule two kinds of pores (heteroporous) and in producing two kinds of gametophytes They are different from the other Lycopodiata in having multiciliate perianth in lacking a suspensor (a chain of cells which serve to put the embryo in a favorable position in relation to its food supply) and in possessing a secondary meristem which develops some secondary tissue (see MISTLE LATERAL) The presence of a peculiar root-producing region which develops new dichotomous (forked) root each year together with their anatomy suggests a close relationship with the fossil Lycopodiata especially the genus *Pleurozium* The phylogenetic connection between *Pleurozium* and *Isoetes* is accepted by many botanists and for this reason the families Pleuroziales and Isoetesaceae are often included in the Isoetes See PALAEOBOTANY PLEROMEIALES TRACHEOPHYTES [PAV]

Bibliography See LYCOPSIDA

## Isoleucine



An amino acid considered essential for normal growth of animals The amino acids are characterized physically by the following (1) the  $pH_1$  or the dissociation constant of the various titratable groups (2) the isoelectric point  $pH_i$  at which a dipolar ion does not migrate in an electric field (3) the optical rotation or the rotation imparted to a beam of plane polarized light (frequently the D line of the sodium spectrum) passing through 1 decimeter of a solution of 100 grams in 100 ml (4) solubility See EQUILIBRIUM IONIC OPTICAL POINT OPTICAL ACTIVITY SPECTROPHOTOMETRIC ANALYSIS

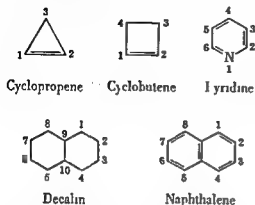
The biosynthesis of isoleucine occurs when pyruvate and  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate react to form  $\alpha$ -aceto  $\alpha$ -hydroxyglutarate which undergoes rearrangement and reduction to  $\alpha$ - $\beta$ -dihydroxy  $\beta$ -methylvalerate. Dehydration of the  $\alpha$ -keto acid and transamination complete the biosynthesis (see AMINO ACIDS) Most of the enzymes concerned also catalyze the analogous reactions in valine biosynthesis See VALINE

During metabolic degradation the first steps are decarboxylation and oxidative decarboxylation forming  $\alpha$ -methylcrotonyl coenzyme A ( $\alpha$ -methylcrotonyl CoA) The following sequence takes place





Thus there are two monosubstituted cyclopropanes and cyclobutenes (1Z and 3Z) three monosubstituted pyridines (2Z, 3Z and 4Z) three monosubstituted decalins (1Z, 2Z and 9Z) and two monosubstituted naphthalenes (1Z and 2Z)



Naphthalene illustrates the effect of polysubstitution on positional isomerism in unsymmetrical cyclic system. In the parent hydrocarbon positions 1, 4, 5 and 8 are equivalent and are designated  $\alpha$ , positions 2, 3, 6 and 7 are designated  $\beta$ . The introduction of a substituent 7 in either an  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  position destroys the equivalence of all other positions; thus there are no fewer than 10 positional isomers for a naphthalene bearing two identical substituents Z (1,2; 1,3; 1,4; 1,5; 1,6; 1,7; 1,8; 2,3; 2,6 and 2,7). Where the two substituents Z and X are not identical, four of the listed isomers each provide a pair, since an interchange of substituents in the 1,2; 1,3; 1,6 and 1,7 structures each provides a new isomer, making 14 in all. Higher order substitution enormously increases the number of positional isomers, but in naphthalene as well as in the other types of unsymmetrical cyclic systems, the principle governing the total number of positional isomers remains the same. It is determined by the number of positionally different hydrogens which may be replaced by other atoms or groups of atoms.

**Functional group isomerism.** The presence of multiple bonds or of atoms other than carbon and hydrogen (for example oxygen, nitrogen) in an organic compound may give rise to isomers whose functional groups or reactive centers exhibit chemically distinguishable properties. Thus the formula  $C_4H_6$  may represent 1-butyne or 2-butyne (positional isomers), methylallene ( $CH_3CH=C=CH_2$ ), 1,3-butadiene ( $CH_2=CHCH=CH_2$ ), 1 or 3-methylcyclopropane (positional isomers), or methylene cyclopropane. In the same manner the monoalkenes are isomeric with cycloalkanes and dialkenes with alkynes, bicycloalkanes and spiranes.

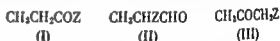
The introduction of oxygen to give compounds of the molecular formula  $C_3H_6O$  may produce alcohols ( $CH_3CH_2CH_2OH$  and  $CH_3CHOHCH_3$ , positional isomers) or an ether ( $CH_3CH_2OCH_3$ ). When the carbon content is greater, positionally isomeric ethers are possible as well. Likewise the

introduction of nitrogen may lead to functional group isomers; thus  $C_3H_7N$  represents *n*- and isopropylamine ( $CH_3CH_2CH_2NH_2$  or  $(CH_3)_2CHNH_2$ ), chain isomers ethylmethylamine ( $CH_3CH_2NHCH_3$ ) or trimethylamine ( $(CH_3)_3N$ ). These three amines are functionally different and are classed as primary, secondary and tertiary respectively.

Where the molecular formula is  $C_3H_6O$  for their possibilities for functional group isomers obtain. Thus  $C_3H_6O$  represents an aldehyde ( $CH_3CH_2CHO$ ), a ketone ( $CH_3COCH_3$ ), two cyclic ethers ( $CH_3CH_2OCH_3$  and  $CH_2CH_2CH_2O$ ) and an unsaturated

alcohol ( $CH=CHCH_2OH$ ). Likewise  $C_3H_5N$  represents three aldimines ( $CH_3CH=NH$ ,  $CH_3CH=NCH_3$  and  $CH_2=NCH_2CH_3$ ), a ketimine ( $CH_3C(=NH)CH_3$ ), azetidine ( $(CH_2)_3NH$ ), two ethylenamines ( $(CH_2)_2NCH_3$  and  $[CH_2CH(CH_3)]_2NH$ ) and two unsaturated amines ( $CH=CHCH_2NH_2$  and  $CH=CHNHCH_3$ ).

Where two or more heteroatoms (atoms other than carbon and hydrogen) are present the possibilities for functional group isomerism may be illustrated by the following structures wherein Z represents OH, O-alkyl, halogen or NH:



Where Z is OH, (I) represents an acid, (II) a hydroxyaldehyde and (III) a hydroxyketone, where Z is O-alkyl, (I) is an ester, (II) an alkoxy aldehyde (ether aldehyde) and (III) an alkoxy ketone, where Z is halogen, (I) is an acid halide, (II) a haloaldehyde and (III) a halo ketone, and where Z is  $NH_2$ , (I) is an amide, (II) an amino aldehyde and (III) an aminoketone. Furthermore, within each series, regroupings of the constituent atoms are possible; for example, where Z is OH, the atoms of (I) may be rearranged to represent various ethylene and propylene oxides (three- and four-membered cyclic ethers) with a hydroxyl substituent, or the OH group may be broken up to form methoxyacetaldehyde ( $CH_3OCH_2CHO$ ) or the esters methyl acetate ( $CH_3COOCH_3$ ) and ethyl formate ( $CH_3CH_2OCHO$ ).

**Geometrical isomerism.** In the molecules of the *cis* isomers, the atoms are attached to each other in the same order but with different spatial or geometrical orientation. The explicit geometry imposed on a molecule by the presence of a double bond between carbon atoms or between carbon and nitrogen or by the presence of a ring system (which is convenient to be considered planar, however, see CONFORMATIONAL ANALYSIS) makes possible the existence of the *cis* isomers. Thus, two atoms or groups of atoms attached to each of two different carbons may be relatively closer to or farther from each other, depending on the relative directions of the bonds from the carbons to which they are attached. The rigid double bond and



The geometrical designations are referred to the principal (lowest numbered) substituent in the present instance the hydroxyl

Bicyclo[ $x y 0$ ]alkanes (for example, bicyclo[4 4 0]decane decalin) may have either a *cis* or *trans* ring junction (if the rings are sufficiently large)

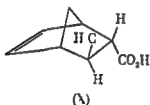


*cis* Decalin

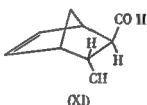


*trans* Decalin

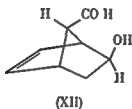
However in bicyclo[ $x y z$ ]alkanes notably Diels Alder adducts of cyclopentadiene with substituted alkenes only *cis* ring junction is possible and the designations *endo* and *exo* are used respectively to locate substituents *trans* (*anti*) or *cis* (*syn*) to a bridge. Thus in (X) the carboxyl is *endo* and the methyl *exo* whereas in (XI) they are reversed



(X)

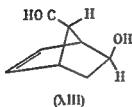


(XI)



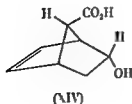
(XII)

*endo* 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] heptene *syn* 7 carboxylic acid  
*syn* 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] heptene *syn* 7 carboxylic acid



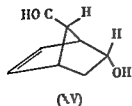
(XIII)

*exo* 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] heptene *anti* 7 carboxylic acid  
*syn* 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] heptene *anti* 7 carboxylic acid



(XIV)

*endo* 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] heptene *syn* 7 carboxylic acid  
*endo* 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] heptene *syn* 7 carboxylic acid



(XV)

*endo* 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] heptene *anti* 7 carboxylic acid  
*anti* 2 Hydroxyl bicyclo[2 2 1] heptene *anti* 7 carboxylic acid

Two further geometrical isomers are possible in this system one in which both substituents are *endo* and the other in which both are *exo*

The terms *cis* and *trans* *syn* and *anti* also find application in the bicyclic systems. Thus (XII) and (XIII) and (XII) and (XIV) may be considered *syn* (XII) and *anti* (XIII XIV) isomeric pairs and the prefix *anti* may be affixed to both carboxyl and hydroxyl in naming (XV). All four are geometrical isomers. See OPTICAL ACTIVITY STEREOCHEMISTRY TAUTOMERISM [W.B.]

Bibliography H Gilman *Organic Chemistry* 2nd ed vol I 1943

## Isomerism nuclear

The metastability of excited states of atomic nuclei. While all excited states of atomic nuclei have finite half-lives, isomers are defined as atoms whose nuclei exist in excited states for measurable lengths of time (see EXCITED STATE METASTABLE STATE). Isomeric half-lives as short as  $10^{-10}$  sec and as long as several years have been measured. The total energy of the nucleus when in an isomeric state may be from a few thousand to a few million electron volts greater than the energy of the nucleus in its ground state.

Nuclear isomers may decay by  $\beta$  ray positron or  $\alpha$  particle emission or by the capture of atomic electrons but most often they lose their energy by making transitions to lower energy levels or to the ground state of the same nucleus. Internal conversion

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 str gt mvc n H wev = iproniazid s now used a n  
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 to is. [N J C]

### Isopoda

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 ments under d caying lea es and wood and under  
 rocks l pods range in size from 1 mm (*Munna*)  
 to around 70 cm (*B thynomus*) In addition to f-  
 ing found on land i op ds ha e been found in h t  
 springs (*E sph erom a therm philum*) and in sul-  
 terran an fre h waters (*Carcidotea*) and ca e The  
 majoritv a e marine where they range fr m the in-  
 t ridal area i the g eat st depths of the ea  
 Their food aries from wood (*Lim oria*) and ea  
 weed (*Lim oria* and *Idothea*) t animal fle h  
 (*Ci ola a* and *Cymothoa*) *Ci ola a* has been  
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**Geolog** c lly isopoda are an an ient group rang  
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*Cyclospira* is fr m the Juras c of England i  
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**Classification** Th cla fication of the Isopoda  
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 Gnathode As lota and Phreatoid a

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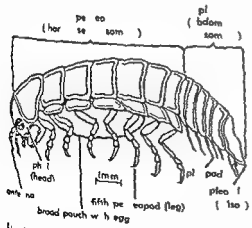
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**B pyr d** are marine para l s c u t a eans  
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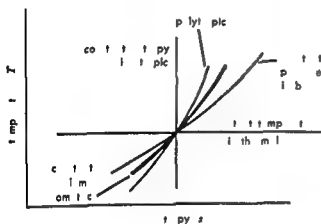
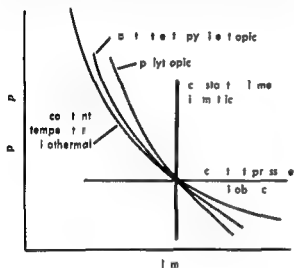


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 C leg B 112(5) 363-389 1954

processes in part accounting for the high octane numbers of the gasolines See ALKYLATION AROMATIZATION CRACKING ISOMERISM MOLECULAR PETROLEUM PROCESSING [GEL]

## Isometric process

A constant volume frictionless thermodynamic process in which the system is confined by mechanically rigid boundaries. Because no work can be done on the surroundings by a system with rigid boundaries, the heat transferred to the system equals the increase of internal energy stored in the system. This increase of internal energy in



Isometric process compared to other thermodynamic processes

turn is a function of the specific heat and the temperature rise of the system

$$Q = U_2 - U_1 = m \int_1^2 C dT = m \int_1^2 T ds$$

where  $Q$  is the heat transferred at constant volume  $U$  is the internal energy  $m$  is the mass  $C$  is specific heat at constant volume  $T$  is the absolute temperature and  $s$  is the entropy. The diagram shows that there is an increase in both the temperature and the pressure of a constant volume of gas as heat is transferred into the system. See THERMODYNAMIC PROCESSES [JB]

## Isomorphism (crystallography)

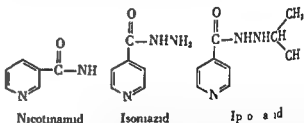
A similarity of crystalline form between substances of similar composition. Two substances which are isomorphous have a similar chemical formula and an equal or nearly equal ratio of cation to anion radius and comparable polarizabilities of their ions. Isomorphism in morphotropism in a narrower more precise sense (see MORPHOTROPISM). Similarity in the macroscopic characteristics of isomorphous crystals becomes so close that extreme precision is needed to distinguish between them.

Examples of isomorphous substances are  $\text{NaVO}_3$  and  $\text{CaCO}_3$ ,  $\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8$  and  $\text{NaAlSi}_3\text{O}_8$  and  $\text{BaSO}_4$ ,  $\text{SrSO}_4$ , and  $\text{PbSO}_4$ . Substances such as  $\text{TbO}_2$  and  $\text{LiO}_2$  are anti-isomorphous; they both have the calcium fluoride structure but the positions of the anions and cations are interchanged in the two structures because of the relative sizes of the ions. Isomorphous substances form mixed crystals while anti-isomorphous substances do not. For a discussion of the chemical composition and crystal structure of isomorphous minerals see MINERALOGY. See also CRYSTAL STRUCTURE [WB]

Bibliography H. C. Evans, *Introduction to Crystal Chemistry* 1939; A. E. H. Tutton, *Crystallography and Practical Crystal Measurement* 1911.

## Isonicotinic acid hydrazide

A chemical compound used as a chemotherapeutic agent for certain infectious and noninfectious diseases. The observation in 1945 that the vitamin nicotinamide inhibits the growth of the bacillus which causes tuberculosis led to a search for similar activity among compounds chemically related to nicotinamide. The direct outcome of this search has been the discovery of two drugs with outstanding potency against the tubercle bacillus: isonicotinic acid hydrazide (isoniazid) and its isopropyl ester (iproniazid). The chemical structures of these compounds are as follows:



Isoniazid and iproniazid are highly specific in their action against the tuberculosis organism (*Mycobacterium tuberculosis*). They have proved inactive against a large number of other bacteria, protozoa, and viruses upon which they have been tested. In the treatment of human tuberculosis, iproniazid is no longer used because of its toxic effects produced during its chronic administration. This toxicity may be due to the inhibition of monoamine oxidase, an enzyme with which iproniazid does not interfere. Thus, isoniazid alone enjoys wide usage in the treatment of human tuberculosis.

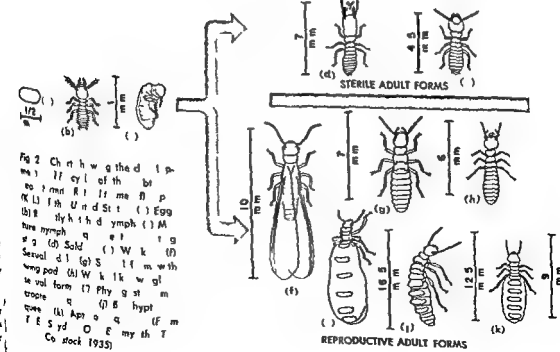


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 See HYPERMASTIGIDA

**Termite castes** Termites are polymorphic.  
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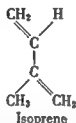
ternal pleopods are operculate and cover the other pleopods *Asellus lanura* and *Jaera* are genera of this suborder

Phreatoicidea are laterally compressed isopods living in the fresh water streams of New Zealand and South Africa. In general aspect they look much like amphipods

About 3000 species of isopods are known today but it may be estimated that only one half of the existing species have been described See *CRUSTACEA* [R J M.]

## Isoprene

A five carbon conjugated diolefin or diene having the structure



It does not occur naturally but is obtained by the destructive distillation of gas oil naphthas and rubber. It is also prepared by the catalytic decomposition of dipentene. It is commercially available in about 96% purity and is used in the production of butyl rubber.

The terpenes may be regarded as multiples of the isoprene unit  $\text{C}_5\text{H}_8$ . Indeed isoprene may also be the foundation for other important plant products such as phytol, the sterols and the carotenoids.

Isoprene is a mobile colorless liquid boiling at  $34^\circ\text{C}$  having a specific gravity of 0.862. It exhibits all the characteristic reactions of dienes of this type. Isoprene polymerizes readily to form dimers and high molecular weight resins. The principal dimer formed is isopropenyl methyl cyclohexene.



Polymerization of isoprene during storage can be controlled by avoiding contact with oxygen by using inhibitors such as *tert*-butyl catechol and by keeping it at low temperatures. See *DIENE TERPENE* [E L S.]

## Isoptera

An order of the class Insecta commonly known as the termites. These insects have wings of equal size, biting mouthparts and a broad thorax; otherwise they are superficially antlike. They are social insects which live in large colonies with a caste system and division of labor. Termites are closely related to the cockroaches and there probably was a common ancestor; therefore termites have been termed social cockroaches. The primitive Australian termite *Mastotermes* has wing structures and an ovipositor similar to those of the cockroaches. The method of mating in the two groups

is similar with the apices of the abdomens opposed. Most termites lay their eggs singly but the primitive forms lay them in a mass like the cockroaches, which produce an ootheca (self-generated protective covering or case secreted over the eggs) by the adult (in ect). Furthermore some primitive cockroaches which bore into wood like termites contain symbiotic protozoa in their intestines which by means of enzymes digest the wood the roaches ingest and render it available as food. Fossils of both termites and cockroaches occur in the Paleozoic era of the Carboniferous period. See *SOCIUM INSECTA*.

The colonizing flight of termites is not a nuptial flight but one for dispersal. After a short weak flight the males and females lose their wings and pairs seek favorable sites for nests. Only after the new colony is founded does mating take place. The rate of egg laying is slow at first but tropical queens may lay as many as 30,000 per day. The male or king continues to fertilize the queen for life. There is no pupal stage but there are quiescent stages of short duration while molting with marked changes from nymph to adult. Termite queens have a remarkable post-adult growth due to special diet. Physogastric queens of African fungus cultivating *Macrotermes* reach the length of 117 mm. With the kings they may live as long as 25 years.

**Taxonomy and distribution.** Over 2100 different species in 6 families and about 180 genera are known including 68 fossil species. The Isoptera may be classified as in the following table and includes the number of living and fossil species. The total does not include new species.

Families of Isoptera

Family	Number of species		Total
	Living	Fossil	
Macrotermidae	1	16	17
Reticulitermitidae	8	11	19
Heterotermidae	5	1	6
Rhinotermitidae	151	8	159
Termitidae	138	4	142
Urodermatidae	0	1	1
Dolichopidae	0	16	16
Total members of families	1787	68	1855

Isoptera occur in all zoogeographical regions except the Arctic and Antarctic. Termites reach the height of their development in the tropics; the 50° parallels of latitude and the mean annual 50° isotherms outline their distribution.

**Nutrition.** With advancing civilization termites have changed from scavengers in the forest to injurious insects. The food of termites is cellulose which is obtained from both living and dead vegetation. Cellulose ingested by certain termites is both ingested and digested by their symbiotic intestinal protozoa which produce the necessary enzymes (Fig. 1). Other termites lacking protozoa obtain their cellulose in a form more directly available as food. In the tropics termites are especially



Fig 3 Termite mounds in the field. A  
trunk (H G H) (F m T E S y d O E my  
th T C mst k 1935)

grooming habit that is, the young lick exudates from  
the bodies of the adults.

Surplus products are eliminated as a primary  
purification of the system. The social structure  
is highly organized and the ants are highly  
cooperative. The social structure is highly  
organized and the ants are highly cooperative.

Termites. The life cycle of termites is  
characterized by the tropics and the temperate  
zone. The form of the colony is determined by  
the environment. The form of the colony is  
determined by the environment. The form of the  
colony is determined by the environment.

With the termite, the social structure is  
highly organized and the ants are highly  
cooperative. The social structure is highly  
organized and the ants are highly cooperative.

rice galleies lead to fungus gardens (Figs 6 and  
7) where edible mushrooms are cultivated by the  
termites. In South Africa, the termites are  
cultivated by the termites.

In the United States, the termites are  
cultivated by the termites. The termites are  
cultivated by the termites.



Fig 6 (a) Mounds of fungus gardens (b) C d wh  
th m f d th d l p d f m th  
th d k my l m f th f g l l d th  
g d t (F m T E S y d O E my th T m  
C mst k 1935)



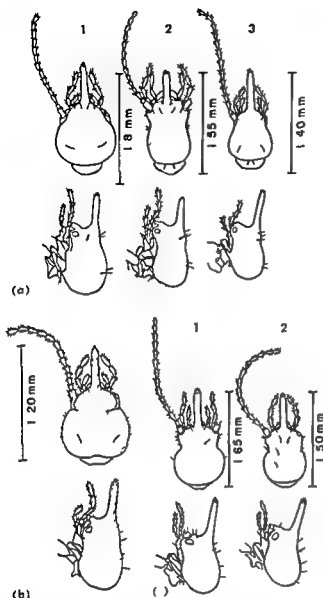


Fig 3 Dorsal and side views of heads of nasutiform termites to show polymorphism or difference in form of soldiers of the same species (a) Three types of soldier present major termite and minor (b) One type of soldier present (c) Two types of soldier present major and minor (From T E Snyder O R Elmyth Termite Comstock 1935)

The soldiers defend a colony when it is invaded by ants. Primitive soldier termites have sawtooth mandibles (Fig 4) but later there evolved a special gland in the front of the head with an acidulous secretion which superseded the mandibles in many termites. Among the termites intermediate between the primitive and highly specialized form both mandibles and frontal glands function. In the nasutiform termites a viscous liquid is ejected as a special and effective form of gas defense. In other highly specialized termites the mandibles are markedly asymmetrical and could not be used for biting but are used audibly to snap or flip the insects away from danger or they may be merely used for signaling to warn of danger. The workers and soldiers live only 1-2 years. Each year large numbers

of winged sexual adults leave the colony to found new colonies.

**Evolution of castes** The caste system and the occurrence of sterile forms are difficult to explain under the various theories of evolution. The castes or different types of termites in the same colony are not distinguishable until after the third molt when they can be separated into the sterile and reproductive forms. The determination and regulation of the castes can best be explained by the inhibition theory. Males, females, and soldiers secrete ecto-hormones which inhibit the nymphal development of individuals of the same sex or caste as that of the form secreting the hormone. In small colonies where the primary reproductive adults are functioning fully the development of additional supplementary forms is inhibited by the secretions of the parent reproductive adults. Each caste if present in the colony in sufficient numbers tends to delay or inhibit the development of individuals of the same caste by a hormone regulation. These secretions are transmitted to the young by the

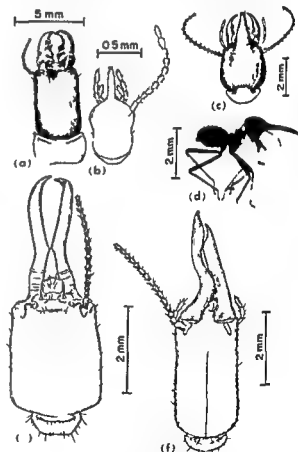


Fig 4 Soldier termites from the American tropics with different types of defense organs (a) Head of a primitive *Kalit mes* with biting jaws (b) Head of a highly specialized soldier with a nasus for defense or chemical warfare (c) Head of a soldier with both jaws and a nasus (d) Lateral silhouette view of a soldier (e, f) Heads of soldiers adapted for digging (From T E Snyder O R Elmyth Termite Comstock 1935)



ton tree nest in Jamaica consisting of 500 000 individuals the traffic from the nest through shelter tubes was 8000 per hour during the period of greatest activity shortly after midnight

Within the mound nests the temperature and humidity are higher than outside. The humidity may be as high as 92%. In nests of the fungus growers air heated in the fungus gardens is circulated through the nest so that the high concentration of carbon dioxide is dissipated through the walls and cooled oxygen rises into the nest. In the Lower Congo region of Africa remarkable small ovoid subterranean *Apicotermes* nests occur with various progressive types of ventilation pores.

**Control** For the purpose of preventing and remedying termite injury these insects may be classed as subterranean dampwood drywood carton and mound builders and harvesting types. Damage to living vegetation by subterranean termites can be remedied by saturating the soil with low percentages of water emulsions of chlorinated hydrocarbons. Structures can be protected against all types of termites by securing impervious foundations and the use of mechanical and chemical barriers. Where dampwood termites injure woody vegetation

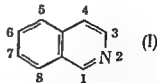
poison dusts may be injected into the galleries. Where buildings are damaged by dampwood termites dryness should be secured by structural methods. Damage to structures or furniture by drywood termites can be remedied by the injection of poison dusts into the galleries or by fumigation with lethal gases. Termites in carton or mound nests can be similarly killed. Harvesting termites can be controlled by the use of poison baits or their nests can be poisoned or fumigated. See INSECTA INSECTICIDE [185]

## Isopycnic

The line of intersection of an atmospheric isopycnic surface with some other surface for instance a surface of constant elevation or of constant atmospheric pressure. An isopycnic surface is a surface in which the density of the air is constant. Such surfaces are also designated isosteric surfaces because the surfaces in which the specific volume is constant coincide with the reciprocal conditions of isopycnic surfaces since density is the reciprocal of specific volume. On a surface of constant pressure isopycnics coincide with isotherms because on such a surface density is a function solely of temperature. On a constant pressure surface isopycnics lie close together when the field is strongly baroclinic and are absent when the field is barotropic. See BAROCLINIC FIELD BAROTROPIC FIELD SOLENOID (METEOROLOGY) [185]

## Isoquinoline

One of a group of organic compounds containing a benzene ring fused to the 3,4 positions of pyridine. Isoquinoline (I) is a representative member of the group. See HETEROCYCLIC COMPOUNDS. Quinoline Quinoline produced from coal tar contains approximately 1-4% of isoquinoline and it is an important source of the latter material. Separation is effected by electrolytic extraction of the more basic isoquinoline with acid or by selective precipitation and fractional crystallization of salts. Repeated fractional freezing and distillation have furnished pure isoquinoline. Many plant alkaloids especially those in the cactus opium and curare groups are isoquinoline derivatives.



**Properties and preparation** Isoquinoline is a colorless odorous liquid with bp 243.3°C, mp 26.5°C and  $n_D^{20}$  1.62078. Its stability to acid base or heat is high. Isoquinoline which is somewhat more basic than quinoline (the pK<sub>a</sub> are respectively 5.14 and 4.51) can be protonated to form simple salts and alkylated to form quaternary



Fig 7 Fructing body of a fungus (Agaricus) growing from a bit of the fungus garden of a termite (Formicidae) (From T. E. S. York, R. E. Smith, T. M. C. Mstock, 1935)



large land masses on the earth's surface tend to sink or rise so that given time for readjustment to occur their masses are hydrostatically supported from below except where local stresses are acting to upset equilibrium See TERRESTRIAL GRAVITATION see also EARTH [CVC]

*Bibliography* W A Heiskanen and F A Vening Meinesz *The Earth and Its Gravity Field* 1958  
H F Howell Jr *Introduction to Geophysics* 1959

## Isotach

A line along which the speed of the wind is constant Isotachs are customarily represented on surfaces of constant elevation or atmospheric pressure or in vertical cross sections The closeness of spacing of the isotachs is indicative of the intensity of the wind shear on such surfaces In the region of a jet stream the isotachs are approximately parallel to the streamlines of wind direction and are closely spaced on either side of a core of maximum speed The term isoval is used synonymously with the term isotach See JET STREAM WIND [FS]

## Isothermal chart

A map showing the distribution of air temperature (or sometimes sea surface or soil temperature) over a portion of the earth's surface or at some

level in the atmosphere On isotherms are lines connecting places of equal temperature The temperatures thus displayed may all refer to the same instant may be averages for a day month season, or year or may be the hottest or coldest temperatures reported during some interval

Maps of mean monthly or mean annual temperature for continents hemispheres or the world sometimes show values reduced to sea level to eliminate the effect of elevation in decreasing average temperature by about  $3.3^{\circ}\text{F}/1000\text{ ft}$  Such adjusted or sea level maps represent the effects of latitude continents and oceans in modifying temperature but they conceal the effect of mountains and highlands on temperature distributions The first isothermal chart prepared by Alexander von Humboldt in 1817 for low and middle latitudes of the Northern Hemisphere was the first use of isopleth methods to show the geographic distribution of a quantity other than elevation

These maps are now varied in type and use Isothermal charts are drawn daily in major weather forecasting centers 5 day 2 week and monthly charts are used regularly in long range forecasting mean monthly and mean annual charts are compiled and published by most national weather services and are presented in standard books on for example climate geography and agriculture See AIR TEMPERATURE TEMPERATURE INVERSION [AC]

## Isothermal process

A frictionless expansion or contraction process accompanied by heat addition or removal from the system at a rate just adequate to maintain a constant temperature of the gas while the process is going on

Because the internal energy of an ideal gas is a function of the temperature alone and because the temperature remains constant in this process the internal energy stored in the system also remains constant

In an isothermal expansion process the heat added to the system is precisely equal to the work done by the isothermal expansion for there is no change in the stored energy of the system

$$Q_T = W + U_2 - U_1 = W = \int_1^2 P dV$$

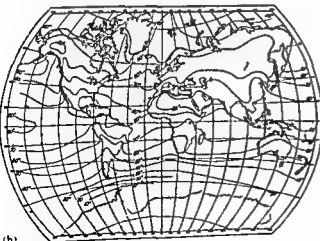
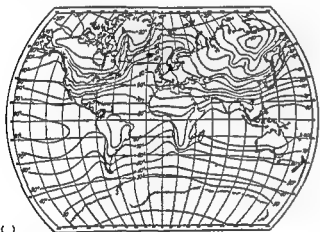
where  $Q_T$  is the heat transferred at constant temperature  $T$   $W$  is work  $U$  is internal energy and  $V$  is volume But from the perfect gas law

$$PV = mRT = \text{Constant} = C \quad \text{and} \quad P = C/V$$

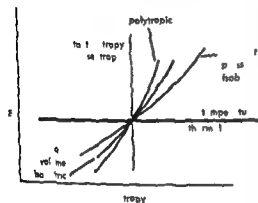
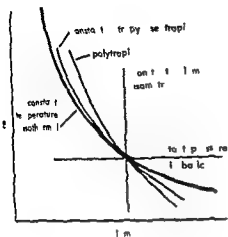
where  $P$  is absolute pressure  $m$  is mass and  $R$  is the gas constant Thus

$$\begin{aligned} Q_T &= \int_1^2 P dV = C \int_1^2 \frac{dV}{V} = mRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} \\ &= mRT \ln \frac{P_1}{P_2} = mT(s_2 - s_1) \end{aligned}$$

where  $s$  is entropy The isothermal reversible com



World sea level isothermal charts (a) January (b) July  
(After H R Byers *General Meteorology* McGraw-Hill 1944)



soth m l m e s s m p d i oth th m d y m  
processes

p on p on p is omp ed to other  
de l g s p o c e s s th d g r m S e THERMO-  
DYNAMIC PROCESSES [38]

### Isotope

O f r n o m toms which ds play c n  
tand d f n e  $A-Z$  betwe their m n m  
by  $A$  and th atom number  $Z$  Th a d pte  
d f r e s n th total n mber of n le con t t  
nent th umbe s f neut o n th nucl of  
vol oes th m The n m b s f naturally  
oc r r i g o t e s p i d t f l e i d n e e n e r n  
ing th tab l i s y f m m c u s f n u t n c o n f i g a t  
t F n m p l e the r e l t s l y l g e n m b r  
( x d e n r s p t l y ) s n t u r a l l y c o c c u r  
r i n g 50 and 8 n t n s i t s g g e t t h a t  
th e n u l s g r a t i n e s p e c i a l l y t a b l e  
O n th e h d f r o m th f c t t h m t a t m s  
w i t h o d d n m b e r s f a t r e c a n t n e  
m y c l d e t h t d d n u t n c o f i g u r e  
l t l y u a b l S N U C L E A R S T R U C T U R E

[38]

### Isotope

O n f w m o s m h g the same t m  
n u m b e r Z b e t w e e t m n m b e r A Th n u c l e  
f n o t p r e t a n d n t f m a b e l p t n

but d f e r e n t n u m b e r o f n e u t r o n s T h u s a l t h o u g h  
t h e y d i f f e r i n m a s s i s o t o p e b e l o t o t h e s a m e  
c h e m i c a l l y m e t F o r m o t e l e m e n t s b o t h s t a b l e  
a n d a d a c t i v e i s o t o p e s a r e k n o w n t h e l a t t e r h o w  
e v e r u n l e s s o c c u r r i n g n a t u r a l l y a r e d i c u s s e d e l e  
w h e r e S e e R A D I O I S O T O P E

T h e o c c u r r e n c e a n d d e g r e e o f i s o t o p y a m o n g t h e  
83 e l e m e n t s t h a t a r e f o u n d i n n a t u r e i n s i g n i f i c a n t  
a m o u n t s h a v e b e e n a s c e r t a i n e d b y m e a n s o f m a s s  
s p e c t r o m e t r y s t u d i e s ( s e e M A S S S P E C T R O S C O P E )  
T l (  $Z=50$  ) f o r e x a m p l e p o s s e s 10 s t a b l e  
i s o t o p e s (  $A=112, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119,$   
120, 122, a n d 14 ) a l a r g e r n u m b e r t h a n a n y o t h e r  
e l e m e n t O n t h e o t h e r h a n d 10 e l e m e n t s p o s s e s  
i s o t o p s e a c h o f t h e s e c o n s i s t s o f o n e t y p e o f a t o m  
o n l y S u b e l e m e n t s a r e a d d e d t o b e a n i s o t o p e T h e  
r e m a i n i n g 62 e l e m e n t s p o s s e s i s o t o p e s r a n g i n g i n  
n u m b e r f r o m t w o t o n i n e A l t o g e t h e r 287 d i f f e r e n t  
a t o m s p e c i e s a r e f o u n d i n a p p r o x i m a t e q u a n t i t y  
i n n a t u r e ( s e e I l l u s t r a t i o n )

N u c l e a r s t a b i l i t y R e g u l a r i t i e s i n t h e t a b l e o f  
n a t u r a l l y o c c u r r i n g a t o m s r e a l i z e i n f a c t t h a t c o n  
c e n t r i g n u c l e a r f o r c e s T h e 287 d i f f e r e n t a t o m i c  
s p e c i e s a r e d i v i d e d a s f o l l o w s 168 e v e n e v e n  
( e v e n n u m b e r o f p r o t o n a n d e v e n n u m b e r o f n e u t r o n s )  
57 e v e n - o d d 53 o d d e v e n a n d 9 o d d - o d d  
T h e t a t s t r i s d i s c l o s e t h a t p a i r i n g t e n d e n c y o f  
n u c l e a r c o n t e n t a d e s t a b l i s h t h a t t h e r e i s n o  
s i g n i f i c a n t d i f f e r e n c e i n s t a b i l i t y b e t w e e n o d d - p r o  
t o n a n d d d n u t r o n a n f i g u r e T h e e x i s t e n c e  
o f a c l a s s i f y l a r g e n u m b e r o f i s o t o p e s p r o v i d e s  
e v i d e n c e f o r a p r o b a b l y t a b l e p r o t o n c o n f i g u r a  
t i o n O t h e r s o f o x a m p l e t h e e x t r a s t a b i l i t y  
a s o c i a t e d w i t h t h e 50 - p r o t o n c o n f i g u r a t i o n ( t h e  
m a g i c n u m b e r ) i s d i s c u s s e d S e e N U C L E A R S T R U C T U R E

I s o t o p i c a b u n d a n c e s M e a s u r e m e n t s h a v e b e e n d o n  
d e t e r m i n i n g e l a s t m b u n d a n c e s f o r i s o t o p e s F o r  
m a n y e l e m e n t s t h e r e l a t i v e i s o t o p i c a b u n d a n c e s  
h o w n o n a t u r a l v a r i a t i o n O t h e r h a n d t h e  
i s o t o p i c c o n t e n t o f e a c h e l e m e n t i s  
t o t a l l y d e p e n d e n t o n t h e h i s t o r y o f t h e e l e m e n t  
t h a t b e i n g e x a m i n e d I n t h e c a s e s t h e a r i a  
t i o n n u m b e r o f c o n t i n u a n c e c a n b e a t t r i b u t e d t o  
c r i t a t u r a l p r o c e s s e s a n d t h e s t a d y f i t h v a r i a  
t i o n p r o d u c e s a p o w e r f u l m e a n s o f e l u c i d a t i n g  
t h e p r o c e s s e s t h e m l e a d o f a s c e r t a i n i n g t h e  
p r o d u c t i o n i n w h i c h t h e s a m p l e u n d e r i n e s t i g a  
t i o n h a s b e e n s u b j e c t e d t o t h e m S o m e d e t a i l o f  
t h e t y p e o f s t u d y e n o w g e n e r a l m e a n s g i v e s  
d u r a t i o n o f b e a m l i s o t o p i c a b u n d a n c e s  
c a l c u l a t e d b y a d o p t e d e q u a t i o n s

A m o n g t h e t a b l e s c u r r i n g a t t e m p e r a t u r e s  
e a s i e s w h i c h a r e a d a p t e d T h e h a l f l i f e  
( t h e a v e r a g e t i m e i n t r a v e l r e q u i r e d f o r o n e - h a l f  
o f a h t i n d e r g r a d a t e d c o n c e n t r a t i o n ) a r e e r y  
i n g b e t w e e n 10<sup>-10</sup> a n d 10<sup>10</sup> y e a r s T h e m o s t i m p o r t a n t m e m b e r s  
o f t h e g r o u p a r e A, Rb, Th, U, a n d U  
T h e t a b l e l a s t m e d r e t a i n e d b y m e a n s  
o f m u l t i p l i c a t i o n o f  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\gamma$ , a n d  
t a b l e i t e m p e r a t u r e s ( P b, P b, a n d P b  
r e p e n t l y ) O n e m a y t h e r e f e r t o t h e m a s s  
t h e p e r c e n t m o s t i s f i n d e d a n d a d g e n e r a l P b  
i n g e n e r a l c o m p o s e t h e a g e o f t h e o c e a n

analogous manner the age of uranium ores may be deduced  $K$  decays to either  $Ar^{40}$  (by  $\beta$  emission or  $K$  electron capture) or  $Ca^{40}$  (by  $\beta$  emission). The  $K - Ar^{40}$  decay is proving increasingly useful in the geochronology of potassium ores which are widely distributed in the earth's crust. The  $Rb^{87}$  decay (to  $Sr^{87}$  by  $\beta$  emission) is also utilized in the dating of minerals. In each of these cases the radioactive decay manifests itself as an altered

from normal isotopic distribution in the daughter element. See RADIOACTIVITY, ROCK (AGE DETERMINATION).

The other altered isotopic distributions that are found in nature result from small differences in the physical and chemical properties of the isotopes of an element. These differences lead to isotopic fractionation (separation into different portions) chiefly via the processes of diffusion, evaporation,

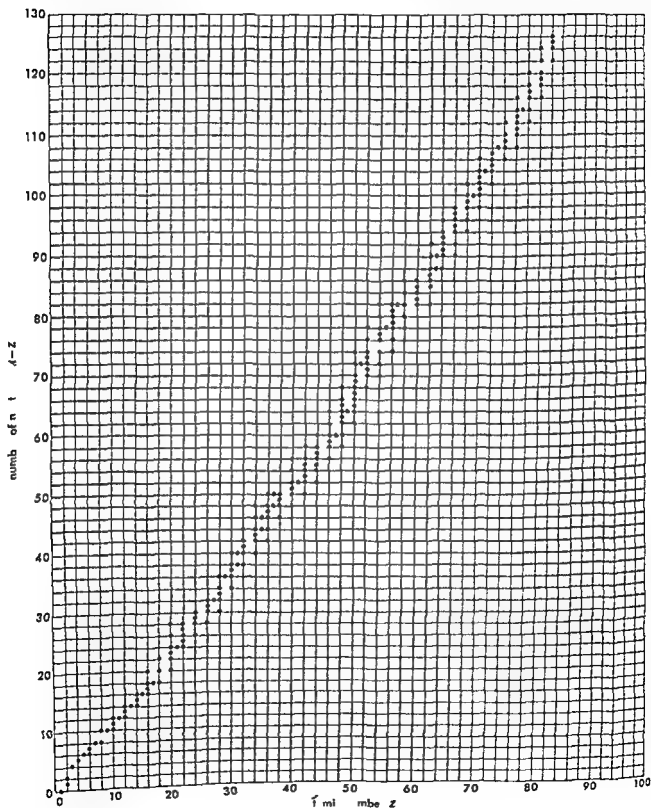


Chart of stable isotopes





mica In the applications mass spectrometers are used to make the sample analysis See ROCK (AGE DETERMINATION) [C L B]

## Isotope separation (stable isotopes)

Many chemical elements always occur in nature as a mixture of several isotopes. The isotopes of any given element have identical chemical properties but there are slight differences in their physical properties because of the differences in mass of the individual isotopes (see ISOTOPE). Thus it is possible to separate physically the isotopes of an element to produce material of isotopic composition different from that which occurs in nature. Although these separation processes are all quite difficult and expensive to carry out they are not inherently different from the usual operations employed in the chemical process industries.

The separation of isotopes is particularly important in the nuclear energy field because individual isotopes may have completely different nuclear properties. For example uranium 235 is used as a fuel for nuclear chain reactors, heavy water (deuterium oxide) is used as a neutron moderator in nuclear chain reactors and deuterium gas is a possible fuel for thermonuclear reactors. Separated isotopes are also used widely for research on the structure and properties of the nucleus.

The process which is best suited for separating the isotopes of a given element depends upon the mass of the element and the quantity of separated material which is desired. Research quantities of separated isotopes are best prepared by electromagnetic separation in a mass spectrometer. For example gram quantities of many separated isotopes have been prepared at the Oak Ridge National Laboratory using the large electromagnetic separators which were built during World War II. The electromagnetic process has the advantage that a fairly complete separation of two isotopes can be obtained in one operation.

When moderate quantities of a separated isotope are desired thermal diffusion may be used. Although thermal diffusion requires a large energy input this is more than offset by the simplicity of the equipment, absence of moving parts and high separation obtained in a small volume.

In the large scale separation of stable isotopes the best processes are those which have the highest thermodynamic efficiencies. Reversible processes involving distillation and chemical exchange are best for separating the light isotopes such as deuterium. For heavy isotopes such as those of uranium however no appreciable separation is obtained by the reversible process and some type of irreversible process such as gaseous diffusion must be used. Although reversible processes have in general higher efficiencies than irreversible ones the absolute efficiency of any isotope separation process is very small.

**Gaseous diffusion** This process has turned out to be the most economical for the separation of the

isotopes of uranium. It is based on the fact that in a mixture of two gases of different molecular weights, molecules of the lighter gas will on the average be traveling at higher velocities than those of the heavier gas. If there is a porous barrier with holes just large enough to permit passage of the individual molecules but without permitting bulk flow of the gas as a whole, the probability of a gas molecule passing through the barrier will be directly proportional to its velocity. From kinetic theory it can be shown that the velocity of a gas molecule is inversely proportional to the square root of its molecular weight, so that the efficiency of gaseous diffusion will depend on the ratio of the square roots of the molecular weights of the two gases present. See DIFFUSION IN GASES AND LIQUIDS. KINETIC THEORY OF MATTER.

The only uranium compound which is a gas at a reasonable temperature and pressure is uranium hexafluoride  $UF_6$ . The two isotopes to be separated are  $U^{235}F_6$  and  $U^{238}F_6$  and the efficiency of separation depends on the quantity

$$\sqrt{U^{235}F_6/U^{238}F_6} = 1.0043$$

Since this number is close to unity the separation is very small in any one step of the process.

The separation of the isotopes of uranium in the United States is carried out in three plants operated by the Atomic Energy Commission which are located at Oak Ridge, Tenn., Paducah, Ky., and Portsmouth, Ohio. In each of these installations natural uranium containing 0.71%  $U^{235}$  and the balance  $U^{238}$  in the form of  $UF_6$  gas is separated into an enriched uranium product containing more than 90%  $U^{235}$  and a waste containing about 0.3%  $U^{235}$ . The British have a gaseous diffusion plant at Capenhurst and the Soviet Union has facilities at an undisclosed location.

The success of the gaseous diffusion process is dependent on the performance of the single diffusion stage. In each stage  $UF_6$  gas is compressed, passed through a cooler to remove the heat of compression and then admitted to the vessel containing the porous barrier (Fig. 1). About half the gas entering the vessel diffuses through the barrier and passes to the next higher stage. This diffused gas contains slightly more of the  $U^{235}$  isotope. The undiffused gas is slightly depleted in the  $U^{235}$  isotope and passes to the next lower stage.

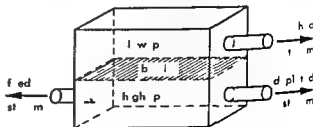


Fig. 1 Gaseous diffusion stage (From H. Etherington, *Nuclear Engineering Handbook*, McGraw-Hill, 1958).

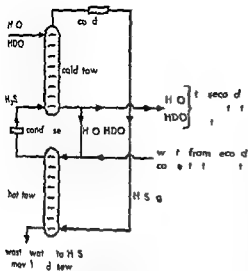


Fig. 2. Dual-temperature  $H_2S$ - $HDO$  chemical exchange. The process is a mixture of  $H_2O$ ,  $HDO$ , and  $D_2O$  that is separated by distillation. The relative distribution of heavy and light water is affected by temperature and the success of the process is determined by the difference between the concentrations in the hot and the cold towers.

The chief use of chemical exchange is in the large-scale production of heavy water. A dual-temperature exchange reaction between water which contains  $HDO$  and  $D_2O$  molecules as well as  $H_2O$  molecules and hydrogen sulfide ( $H_2S$ ) gas for the primary separation of heavy water is used at the Savannah River plant. The separation is carried out in a series of hot towers operating at the boiling point and cold towers operating at room temperature (Fig. 2). In each tower liquid water passes downward countercurrent to the rising  $H_2S$  gas. The relative distribution of heavy and light water is affected by temperature and the success of the process is determined by the difference between the concentrations in the hot and the cold towers.

Chemical exchange has also been used for the large-scale separation of other isotopes. For example, the isotopes of boron have been separated by fractional distillation of the boron trifluoride-dimethyl ether complex.

**Distillation.** The separation of isotopes by distillation is much less efficient than separation by other methods. Distillation was used during World War II to produce heavy water, but the cost was high and the plants are no longer in existence. The only present large-scale use of distillation is at Savannah River where fractional distillation is used to concentrate the product from the dual-temperature process (12–16%  $D_2O$ ) up to 95–98%  $D_2O$ . See DISTILLATION.

**Electrolysis.** Electrolysis of water is the oldest large-scale method of producing heavy water. Under favorable conditions the ratio of hydrogen to deuterium in the gas leaving a cell in which water is electrolyzed is 8 times the ratio of these isotopes in the liquid. In spite of this high degree of separation, electrolysis can be used only where electricity is very cheap as in Norway because of the large power consumption per pound of  $D_2O$  produced. Electrolysis is used in the United States only as a finishing step to concentrate the final product specification.

**Electromagnetic process.** Electromagnetic separation was the method which was first used to produce the existence of isotopes. The mass spectrometer and mass spectrograph are still widely used by physicists as a technique for (see MASS SPECTROSCOPY). In the electromagnetic process, particles of the material to be analyzed are ionized and accelerated in an electric field and enter a magnetic field which causes the ions to be bent in a circular path (Fig. 3). Since the light ions have less momentum than the heavy ions they will be bent through a smaller radius and the two isotopes can be separated by placing collectors at the proper location.

During World War II a large electromagnetic separation plant was built at Oak Ridge to separate the isotopes of uranium. The large mass spectrometer used there was referred to by the code name Calutron, a contraction of California University

Several thousand additional megawatts are required for the heavy water process. The combination of stage is known as a cascade. The cascade which brings about separation with the least work is known as an ideal cascade. The size of the stages varies tremendously with the degree of natural uranium in the feed and the largest and the final product is the most efficient.

Check of piping and process equipment is made to handle the UF<sub>6</sub> gas. Thousands of pumps and a compressor system are required. The power requirement for the gas is approximately 10% of the electric power output of the United States has been required to operate the three different plants.

The gaseous diffusion process was originally developed as a means of producing highly enriched uranium from bismuth. At present much of the enriched uranium produced by gaseous diffusion is used as fuel for nuclear reactors.

**Chemical exchange.** The chemical exchange process has been developed to be the most efficient for separating isotopes with the lightest element. The process is based on the fact that if equilibrium is established between two isotopes, for example, gas and liquid phases, the composition of the isotopes will be different. The two phases are in equilibrium with water and a deuterium gas. By repeating the process a small enrichment is possible. The final enrichment of the isotopes with a relatively small number of stages.

cyclotron The first kilogram quantities of  $U^{235}$  were produced in 1944 With the completion of the gaseous diffusion plant at Oak Ridge the electro magnetic process was found to be uneconomical and was abandoned in 1946 However some of the equipment is still being used to produce gram quantities of separated isotopes for research purposes

**Thermal diffusion** The separation of isotopes by thermal diffusion is based on the fact that when a temperature gradient is established in a mixture of uniform composition one component will concentrate near the hot region and the other near the cold region Thermal diffusion is carried out in the annular space between two vertical concentric pipes the inner one heated and the outer one cooled Because of thermal convection of the fluid there is a countercurrent flow which greatly increases the separation obtained in simple thermal diffusion and makes possible substantial separations in a reasonable column height

Thermal diffusion has been used to separate small quantities of isotopes for research purposes In 1944 a plant was built at Oak Ridge to separate the isotopes of uranium by thermal diffusion However the steam consumption was very large and the plant was dismantled when the gaseous diffusion facilities were completed

**Centrifugation** The use of a centrifuge to separate isotopes has one major advantage namely that the separation depends only on the difference in masses of the two isotopes and not on the ratio of their masses Thus it is no more difficult to separate the isotopes of uranium than those of the light elements A disadvantage of the centrifuge method is that a very high speed of rotation is required to obtain any substantial separation in a single unit

A centrifuge pilot plant was built during World War II but further work on the process was discontinued because of engineering problems involved in the operation of high speed rotors the low capacity of the individual machines and the large power input required to overcome friction See CENTRIFUGATION

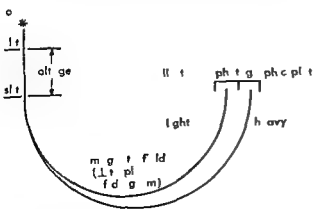


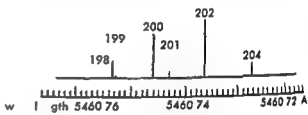
Fig 3 Diagram of mass spectrometer or Cal to (Fr m R Steph nso I tradu to I Nucl ar E g ng 2d ed McGr w H I 1958)

**Nozzle process** Isotopes can be separated by allowing a gaseous compound to exhaust through a properly shaped nozzle Preliminary calculations indicate that this relatively new method may be competitive with gaseous diffusion for separating the isotopes of uranium See RADIOISOTOPE PRODUCTION see also DEUTERIUM HEAVY WATER NUCLEAR FUELS [R M S V]

**Bibliography** M Benedict and T H Pigford *Nuclear Chemical Engineering* 1957 K P Cohen *The Theory of Isotope Separation as Applied in the Large scale Production of  $U^{235}$*  1951 R Stephenson *Introduction to Nuclear Engineering* 2d ed 1958

## Isotope shift

A displacement of spectral lines which come from the different isotopes of an element This shift in wavelength is caused mainly by differences in nuclear masses and differences in nuclear volumes The first effect predominates in the lightest ele



Isotope shifts in the green line of mercury. The lines indicate the hypothetical structure components of the isotopes having odd mass numbers

ments but becomes negligible for atomic numbers greater than about 40 The mass effect in electron atoms results from the variation of the reduced mass  $m_A/(m + A)$  where  $m$  is the electron mass and  $A$  is the nuclear mass and was important in establishing the Bohr theory (see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA RYDBERG CONSTANT) The shift of the first line of the Balmer series between hydrogen and deuterium is 1.325 Å and this led to the discovery of deuterium The volume effect is important for heavy elements and gives information about nuclear structure Deviations from the theoretical volume effect allow an evaluation of nuclear quadrupole moments and nuclear shape A typical volume effect is shown in the illustration Though the lines for the isotopes with even mass numbers are seen to be almost equally spaced the lines for the odd ones do not lie even approximately halfway between [F A J]

## Isotopic spin

A quantum mechanical variable introduced for convenience in interpreting nuclear reactions and hyperon decays

In the quantum mechanics of atomic nuclei it is sometimes convenient to regard the proton and the neutron as two different states of the same particle called the nucleon The concept is useful as a means of giving expression to the apparent

large independent of long nuclear forces that is, the fact that proton proton neutron and neutron neutron interactions are apparently the same.

The  $T_1$  is introduced which has the value  
 for the proton and  $-T_2$  for the neutron that  
 the baryon  $\{a \text{ nucleon} : |c|(\omega + T_2)\}$  being  
 the absolute value of the charge of the electron or  
 proton. The  $\omega$  is kind of exchange forces which  
 play a role in nuclear theory and find applica-  
 tion by treating it like a component of quan-  
 tum formally resembling an angular momentum  
 vector  $T$  for which is called the isotopic spin  
 or isospin. The name comes from the  
 formal analogy to spin and is somewhat arbitrary  
 since it does not have anything to do with  
 actual spin. Nevertheless, as one would expect  
 I find it strange that there is little chance that it will  
 be changed.

Individual energy level of compound nucleus  
 is assigned a quantum number  $T$  which is  
 $T(T+1)/2$  per unit the magnetic moment of the  
 resultant of the individual spin components of the  
 constituent nucleons. The resultant  $T$  of the  
 nucleons in nucleus contains  $A$  nucleons  
 which are protons and  $(A-Z)$  are neutrons.

$$T_1 = \ln Z - \ln(A - Z) = Z - \ln A$$

Let  $\epsilon$  of the charge depend on the strength  
of the interaction. The energy levels will depend  
strongly on  $T$  but only slightly on  $T$ . The conclusion  
is that a  $d$  with oblate spheroid which shows  
large frequency differences between the energy levels  
of  $^{137}\text{Ba}$  ( $0.014$  eV) and  $^{138}\text{Ba}$  ( $0.014$  eV).

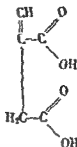
In similar manner it has a full e-  
 rad th th k l (-meso) a e pond n  
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 ternary part th pon whe th v ln s  
 T = -1 0 -1 rr pond to po tie ne t al  
 and u g t p ns respectively Th affo d a  
 o e e tw y str at g th b rg indep den  
 of the ng ter tion f p ns with ucl s  
 S ELEMENTARY ARTICLE HYPERON MESO  
 NUCLEAR STRUCTURE SELECTION RULES (PHYSICS)  
 S MURPHY L WS (PHYSICS) {E L C}

Isotropy (physics)

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n e r e t d p adent upon th d t n th  
body l ng w h l they a e me ured A body d e  
play ng not op h o ly on e l a t v d one  
d l e c e n s 2, n d on M o t b u t n t all  
l q d e d a g g e g a t e s m d p o f m a n y m a l l  
c r i l t a d m i y i n t d i p c a e o t o p  
all th ■ p e r t e s d e p e n d n o n t h e i r m  
m t n g i t a l s m a y m y n o t b o t p e  
th p e r t e ■ n p o p t f r a m p l  
e l t } w h b e t r u t e c t p  
w h r e p e c t l e e t l e e t i t y b u t n t w h  
p r o p e r t l e d f r m b l t y S A n o t o p t  
(m n : s) F e t c i t y { d r }

**Itaconic acid**

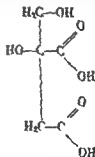
An organic acid, methylene succinic acid, which decomposes at 165°C, having the following structural formula:



Ferm ntat n s a potertal m robolog cal large scale m thod f r production of th s unaturated branch d ch n d carboxylic acid a a aw matrial loc c rtan plasti s with special propert es (see FERMENTATION). A m d m consisting of commerci l grade gluc e 15-20% and sno g n c alt s djust d with hydrochloric acid to pH 1.8-2.0. The pH of the medi m ; critic l. The medium i colated with p res or mycelium i s elected strain of the filament u a comycetous i ugnus, *Asp gillus te reus* i se at d r agitated i a at nle s teel fermento at 35 C, f r 2 s da s. Itac n c id can also be produced by the u fac r tray proce s. Th yield is appro imately 40% of th sugar consumed. The ire acid is crytallized fr m the filte d ferm ntat n liquor at s vacuum c ntration a d cooling. { J W P }

## Itatartaric acid

An organic acid hydroxystyrene acid which has been produced experimentally by fermentation (see FERMENTATION). Its structural formula is



The compound formed as a minor product, 5.8% of the total dry product, was identified as a compound containing *Aspergillus niger* (see Itaconic acid). The strain is an unidentified mold (see Mutation) that it is identical to the strain used in the previous experiments.

## Itch

A pattern of data on an international basis. A  
study of different types of mechanical electrical  
hem and thermal—may produce it. The most

vivid and persistent itching is associated with pathological skin conditions (prurigo) and with the irritant action of itch powder the spicules of the plant cowhage (cow itch)

The most convincing evidence that itch derives from the operation of the same nervous mechanism as that responsible for pain comes from experiments on human skin. In these experiments a brief train of high voltage sparks imparted to the skin at a rate of five or more per second each too weak to elicit any sensation may evoke the itching sensation. The same stimuli at higher intensity yield pain. The presumption is that itch is associated with a slow but enduring succession of low frequency impulses in the cutaneous nerve fibers leading to the central nervous system from that portion of the skin. Pain of a stronger and more disagreeable quality results from nervous discharges of higher frequency.

In skin rendered irritable by disease or inflammation itching may sometimes be evoked by simply touching or stroking it mechanically. Temperature changes may produce itch under some conditions. However aroused the sensation is a powerful stimulator of action leading promptly to scratching or some other device to break up the persistent steady pattern of nervous impulses underlying it. See PAIN CUTANEOUS [FAC]

*Bibliography* S. Rothman, *Physiology and Biochemistry of the Skin* 1954

## Ixodides

A suborder of the Acarina class Arachnida comprising the ticks. Ticks differ from mites, their nearest relatives, in their larger size and in having a pair of breathing pore or spiracles behind the third or fourth pair of legs. They have a gnathosoma (or so called head or capitulum) which consists of a base (basis capituli) a pair of palps and a rigid elongated ventrally toothed hypostome which anchors the parasite to its host. They also have a pair of protrusible cutting organs or chelicerae which permit the insertion of the hypostome. The stages in the life cycle are egg, larva, nymph and adult. The larvae have three pairs of legs, nymphs and adults four. The 600 or so known species are all blood sucking external parasites of vertebrates including amphibians, reptiles, birds and mammals.

Ticks are divided into three families: Argasidae, Ixodidae and Nuttalliellidae. The latter contains but one exceedingly rare African species, *Nuttalliella namaqua*, which is morphologically intermediate between the Argasidae and the Ixodidae. It is of no known importance either medically or economically.

**Argasidae.** Argasids or the soft ticks differ greatly from ixodids in that the exoskeleton is leathery, the integument of adults and nymph is leathery and wrinkled; there is no dorsal plate or scutum; the gnathosoma is ventral in adults and nymphs but anterior in larvae; and the spiracles are small



Fig 1. *Argasid* *Ornithodoros tholozani* (natural size)

and anterior to the hindlegs (Fig 1). The ticks frequent nests, dens, and resting places of their hosts. Adults feed intermittently and eggs are laid a few at a time in niches where the female seeks shelter. Larvae feed for a few minutes to several days, then detach and transform to nymphs which feed and molt several times before transforming to adults. Nymphs and adults are notably resistant to starvation; some are known to live 10 years or longer without feeding.

The family contains about 85 species, with 90 in the genus *Argas* and 60 in *Ornithodoros*. Several are of medical or veterinary importance. *Argas persicus* (Oken), the fowl tick, is a serious pest of poultry throughout most of the warmer and drier regions of the world. Nearly everywhere it occurs it carries fowl spirochetosis, a disease with a high mortality rate. Larvae and nymphs of *Otobius megnini*, the spinose ear tick, feed deep in the ears of domesticated animals in many semiarid regions. Heavy infestations cause intense irritation which lead to untidiness and sometimes to death. The life history is unusual because adults do not feed. *Ornithodoros moubata* (Murray) transmits relapsing fever in East Central and South Africa. It is a highly domestic parasite and man is probably the chief host. *O. turicata* (Duges), *O. hermsi* (Wheeler, Herms and Meyer), *O. talaje* (Guerin-Meneville), and *O. rudis* (Koch) are important vectors of relapsing fever in the Western Hemisphere. *O. tholozani* (Laloubene and Megnin) in Asia. The bite of most species that attack man produces local and systemic reactions. The bites of some species, especially *O. coriaceus* (Koch) of California and Mexico are extremely venomous.

**Ixodidae.** In contrast to argasids, Ixodidae have a scutum covering most of the dorsal surface of the



Fig 2 I odd h k D m ) d n f m l  
bout 15 mm otu l

m le b t only the anter portu n f females  
symph, and i r v e (F g 2) They a e k w n a  
th h d tick Th are thu m kedly d  
m l r The gn th oma xtend nte ly and  
the larg po les a e p o t r t the h d leg  
l te d f i e q n t u g n e t p l c e s these tick  
are lly m or les r domly d t r l t e d  
th g h o t th h t s e s o m n t Larva  
ymph a d a d l t s f e d b t n e d r l d a y s  
are e q u e d l n g o r g m n t The m m a t e t g  
f m o s t p e c e s d p t th g r d f m l t g b u t  
th o s f i b g s B p h i l u s and a f e w t h e r s m l t  
the h t The i m l e l a y a m a s c n t i g p  
t 10 000 o m g g The l i f e c y c l a l l y  
m p l t e d i o 1 y e a r s  
The i m l y s i f a b o u t 12 w e l l d f e d g n  
r a t h 500 p e s M a y s p e c i t r m i s d e a e

agents to ma and animals included are viruses  
r k i t a e l a c t e r i p r t o o a a d t o i n T r a n s  
m i s s i o n s b y h t e r b y c o n t a t w i t h c r u s h e d t i c k  
t i s u e s o e c r e m e t V i r s d i s a e s f m a n i n l u d e  
C o l o d t i c k f e e r o f w s t e r n U n e d S t a t e s t r a s  
m i t t e d b y D e m a c t o r a d e r o n S i l e s a n d R u s  
s a n s p i n g s u m m e r e n c e p h a l i t i s a n d r e l a t e d d i s  
e

E u p e a n d A s i a t r a n s m i t t e d b y I x o d e s  
p e s u l c a t s S c h l z S m i m p r t a n t r c k e t t s i l  
d e e s f m a n a r e R k y M n t i n s p o t t e d f e e r  
w d l y d i b u t e d i n t h e W t e r n H m i p h e e f  
w h c h D n d r s o t U f a b i l s (S a y) R h i p i c e  
p h a l u s s n g u i n e u s (L a t i l l e) d A m b l y o m m a  
a j n e n s e (F b r i u s) a e i m p r t a n t v e c t o  
b o u t n n u l e r d e l a t e d d e a o f t h e M e d  
t e r r a e a r e g o n n d A f r a t a n s m i t t e d b y R s a  
g u i e u s a n d s o m e o t h e r s p e c a d Q f e v e r t h e  
s g t f w h c h a l t h o u g h o c u r r i n g i n m a n y t i c k  
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The u m e u s t k b n e d s a e s o f a n m l s  
e v a s t e c o n m i c l s e s e s p e c i a l l y n t o p i c a l  
a d u b t r o p c i r e g s E x a m p l e s a b a b e s i a s i a  
g n t z o a n d e a s c a u s e d b y s p e c i e s o f B a b e s a i n  
c l d g B b g m t t h e s g t o f t h e w i d e l y d  
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f e e f A f r a n t h r p r o t o a n d s e, u s e d  
b y T h l r i a p i s c r r e d b y e e r a l s p i e s f  
R h p e p h l u s A d f m c a r y n g d e s e, s e v  
e a l p e c e e x t m e l y i m p r t a n t p e s t o f m  
d a n m a l H e a v y n f t t o o f t k s p r o d c e  
r m i l e s t o c k a n d m e n d e t h f r o m  
i o f b l o o d a l o S e a r t i c l e s s p e c i f i c d s  
e s s a l o A C A R I A [c i k]



**Jade—Jute**

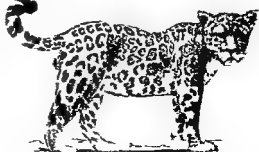
A name that may be applied correctly to two different minerals. The two true jade species are nephrite and jasper. I add the variety of other minerals are usually called jade. Jade is called Cal (jade) and dyed jade is called Mexican jade and green jade is called Mexican jade. So the jade is the most widely distributed mineral type. Jade is the most precious gemstone to the Chinese as much as a diamond is to the West.

Nephrite Neph te n of the mph bole  
 group (rock form gma er l nd n cu s  
 a ty of omb at of th mne ltem l  
 d to lte Tr mite s cl mngne m  
 lum num l te whe s n p lca th m g  
 nes m m a n lte Although ngle cry tal f  
 the mph bol a fr gle b ca e of two d ec  
 ta f easy le gr the m tely fibr s truc  
 ture of ph te make t x d ly d rable l  
 occy ret f lrs m sily fl w ten  
 sity l d med um d da k ge yell w  
 bla k a d bl egr y N phrite h hs des f  
 6-64 on Mob c l a pacific ty er 295  
 d r f ct des f 161-164 On th r fa  
 t m t ph te gem st n h w a ngle d x  
 161 N phrt occ th o gho l the w ld  
 importa t so ce cl de R s N w z l nd  
 Al ka, e l pr ne of Chn and n mb r  
 of tates th western U ted St te Se AMPHI  
 BOLE GEM

Jadeite Jadeite th m re her hed f the two  
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The name given to the mon clin c sod um alu m num  
pyrox e N Al (SiO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub> J de te f rms green li  
hous cry tals that are col le in th n secti ns  
a de h but the 87 pyro ene (110) cl avage Jade  
it is var m tam ph m n e l f and in some  
se pe ture masse as ociated with other den e m m  
erals ch s l ws nit CaAl Si O (OH) gl u  
cophau g net and othe minerals cha d p  
de t em l te serpentine nat ol m (a zeolite) and  
chl n Beca se f the prese e of albite a d  
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ome j deite pecimens a d the o gh simil rity of  
the rock to the ecl g t t t ight th t jad ite  
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n Jade te al ed a pe co s to e f r c rv  
g S e GLAUCOPHANE PYROXENE lso  
HIGH PRESSURE PHENO IENA JADE [GWD]

A l g m o r e F l s n f the f m l y F e l d  
 m e t m s c l l e d t h A m a n l e o p a d T h j a g u r  
 a f u n d f o m P t s g n a n t h w a d : t h U n t e d



J g F I I ght 79 m (E L P Im f 12  
b k I N t I H s r y M G w-Hll 1949)

[xyl]



States border and rarely in Texas Arizona and New Mexico The jaguar may attain a length of 7 ft and may weigh up to 225 lb It is essentially a jungle cat it exhibits great agility in spite of its size and is able to climb trees and to swim with facility The jaguar has been known to kill and eat humans It may eat almost any moderate sized or large animal including alligators turtles pigs tapirs horses and cattle Jaguars have beautiful valuable fur which is tawny above white below and regularly dotted with black spots most of the spots on the back and sides are open rosettes See CARNIVORA [JDB]

## Jamming

Intentional generation of interfering signals by powerful transmitters as a countermeasure intended to block a communication or radar system or to impair its effectiveness appreciably Radio broadcasts or radio messages can be jammed by beaming a more powerful signal on the same frequency at the area in which reception is to be impaired using carefully selected noise modulation to give maximum impairment of intelligibility of reception When stations on many different frequencies are to be jammed or when an enemy is changing frequencies to avoid jamming the jamming transmitter is correspondingly changed in frequency or swept through a range of frequencies over and over again Similar techniques are used in radar frequencies to jam early warning and gun fire control radar systems See ELECTRONIC COUNTERMEASURES [JMR]

## Japanning

The finishing of metal objects with a black baking varnish that consists primarily of a hard asphalt such as gilsonite Japanning was widely used for metal finishes before the development of modern synthetic enamels This use has largely disappeared because the same properties can be obtained with finishes based on synthetic resins that are resistant to heat and solvents and are available in a number of colors

The term is sometimes applied to coatings obtained with Oriental lacquer made from the juice of a sumac tree This also is no longer widely used See LACQUER VARNISH [FSD]

## Jasper

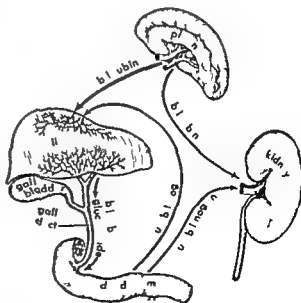
An opaque impure type of massive fine grained quartz that typically has a tawny red dark brownish red brown or brownish yellow color The color of the reddish varieties of jasper is caused by admixed finely divided hematite and that of the brownish types by finely divided goethite Jasper has been used since ancient times as an ornamental stone chiefly for inlay work and as a semiprecious gem material Under the microscope jasper generally has a fine granular structure but fairly large amounts of fibrous or spherulitic silica also may be present See GEM QUARTZ

Jasper has a smooth conchoidal fracture with a dull luster The specific gravity and hardness are variable depending upon particle size and the nature and amount of the impurities present both values approach those of quartz The color of jasper often is variegated in banded potted or orbicular types Heliotrope is a translucent greenish chalcedony containing spots or streaks of opaque red jasper and jasp agate contains bands of chalcedonic silica alternating with jasper Jasperite is a metamorphic rock composed of alternating layers of jasper with black or red bands of hematite [CPR]

## Jaundice

The yellow staining of the skin and mucous membranes associated with the accumulation of bile pigments in the blood plasma Bile pigments are the normal result of the metabolism of blood pigments and are normally excreted from the blood into the bile by the liver An increase in circulating bile pigments can therefore come about through increased breakdown of blood (hemolytic jaundice) through lack of patency of the bile ducts (obstructive jaundice) through inability or failure of the liver to clear the plasma (parenchymal jaundice) or through combinations of these See GALLBLADDER LIVER

**Metabolic pathway** A graphic representation of the pathway of bile pigment metabolism in the body is shown in the illustration Metabolism of the hemoglobin from destroyed red blood cells is carried on in organs of the reticuloendothelial system such as the spleen and the resulting bilirubin is liberated to the plasma The plasma then circulates through the liver where the bilirubin is conjugated enzymatically with glucuronic acid and excreted in the bile Bile travels through the bile ducts to the small intestine whence a small amount of altered



Pathway of blood pigment metabolism

bilirubin, termed r l i n o g n m y b e b o b e d into the plasma. Ex es = destructi n of ed bl od cell will cau e accel r ted p o d u t i s of bil rub n or l ad the ab l i t y f the li e r to em the pig ment f m the c r c l a t i n and produ = jaund = Blockage f the bil ducts will cause elevat on of plasma bilirubin gl cu n d level b c u e f the inability to di p se of thi mat r a l i the u u a l h n l Damage t l r ell m v cau ele at on of the pl ma bilirubin o b l i r u b g l o c u r o n i d e o both, dep d g on th typ and s r i t y of li v r l l damage

Jaund e o c c a w h e the l e l of the r e g u l a t u n g p g m t b e m o h g h t of the a e i b l e u n i n the k u n d m o m e m b n s w h e e t h e y r e b o n d b y a r e a t n w h i c h h a s o t b e n i d e n t i f i e d i the n r m a l d u l t t a l b i l r u b i n t h a t i n the t o t a l b l i r u b n d b i l r u b g l o c u r o n i d e l e v e l r a s l y e x c e e d 0.8-1.0 mg/100 ml of pl m w h i l e i d i c a l l y b e c o m e s i s b l e w h e n t o t a l b i l r u b i n p p c h e s 1.5 mg S e B I L I R U B I N

Hemolytic jaundice De t r u c t i n f r e d b l o o d c l u s i n t h o r m i h m n a d u l t p c e d s a t a r a t e m b h b o u t 0.8% f the c i c u l a t i n g h e m o g l o b i n b r o k e d w n e n h d a y T h i c h i n c r d n n a t s o f x e s i e h e m i y i u p t o 10-1 f o l d w i t h u o e r i n g the r e m a r k a b l e b i l i t y of the l i v e r t o l b l r u b f m the pl ma E n t h i r t e f e l n g c a n b e x e e d e d h o w e v r i n c e r t n m b d i t e s c l d n g a r o s h m t y l n e m i a s h e m l e s l n g f m a n i m p t a b l e b l o o d t a n y f s e v r t h e r m l l e c t r c n y e o n i o d u c t a f h r o l y t g e n t i n t o the b l o d s t e m c m l i n d i e o c u s i n p l m o a r y f c t i n i f a t a d e p e c a l l y p e m t r e i n f a n t t h b l i t o f t h l e r t o j u g t e b i l r u b i n w i t h g l u c u r n d i n m c h i l e s t h a i n a d u l t s a p p a r t l y b e c o m e of the l e k f i u a b l e e n z y m e s J a u d a p p e a r s n e m y i f n t h r t l y a l t b r t h e n d p p e r w i t h n a f e w d y w i t h d e c l o p m e n t of t h p p r p a t e z y m t r u c t u r l the o m m e t t i a l h e p a t d y f n t n t h n e m e d f e c t p p r e n t l y p e r i s n t o a d u l t i f T h e m f u l j d c m p n y g e r y t h o b l s t f e l (R h b b e s) d t the b l i t y f the w l i l e t m a b o l e e the b l u b i n r e s u l t g f r o m r e k e d l y a c c l e a t d h e m l y i s S B L O O D c o n s

Obstructive jaundice Th h g h e s t l e l o f t a l b i l r u b i n r e e n c h b r u t e j u d m h h p l a m l e v l s m y r h 50-60 mg/100 ml, and the k m a y t a k n m a k b l e d p y l l w h T h i d i n m b e b r u g h t b o t t h r g h a t y f m n i t h i n f t h m y b e e r i d e v e l p m t f t h b l e d c t o c h t a t o h n l l the f l w o f b l e x s t h i l n the a d u l t b r u t j d e m o t o m n l y c e d f y i m p t f a g l l n n t h d i s B g n d m l g n i t m r f e t h g a l l b l d d b l d c t s p c e l y m p h o d e s d t e r f m a y f o m p o f t h e b l d t t h l s f p s i a d l l d t t r

tu e may follow surgery or a inflammation in the re g i o n A s m l = l e s s e e e r e v e r i b l e p i c t u r e i s e e n a s a h y p e r e n s i t y e s p n e t the a d m i n i s t r a t i o n f s o m e d r g s the m s t c o m m o n of w h i c h r c h l r p r m a z i n and e l a t e d d r u g s and m e t h y l t e s t t r o n e I n the u n c o m m o n b e n i g n d i o r d e r k n o w n a s i d i o p a t h i c f a m i l i a l j a u n d i c e the e a p p e a r s t o b d e c r e a e d a b l i t y t o e x c t e c o n j u g t e d b i l r u b i n i n t o the b i l d u t s g i n g n e t a c o n s t a n t e l e v a t o n i n the p l a s m a b i l i n l n g l u c u o n i d e w h i h i s u u a l l y q u e s t i g h t

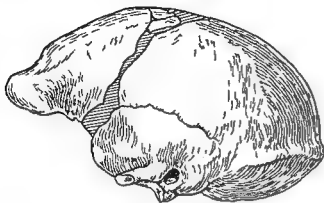
Parenchymal jaundice A w i d e v a r i e t y of d i s e a s e s i n w h i c h p a r t f t h j a u n d i c e c a n b e a u n t e d f b y a t u a l d a m a g e t o l i v e r c e l l s w i t h n e c u e n t d e c e i n t h e i r a b l i t y t o c o n j u g t e b i l i r u b i n and e x c r e t e the g l u c r n d e c a u s i n g a n l e a t n o f b o t h l r c t i n = the p l a s m a T h i s g r o u p o m p s s u c h o n d i t i o n s a s i n f l a m m a t i o n s f t h e l i v e r i c l u d i n g v i r a l h e p a t i t i s W e i l l s d i s e a e s y p h i l s p a r a s i t i c i n f e s t a t i o n s and b a c t e r i a l i n f e c t i o n t o i c c o d i t i s i n c l u d i n g p o s s i m i n g w i t h a w i d e a e t y o f g a n c e a n d i n o r g a n i c c o m p o u n d n d i a w i d e s e n s e t h e t o e m s a s s o c i a t e d w i t h e v r e s y t e m e d i e s s e s t u m r o u c o d i t i n c l u d i n g p r i m a r y h e p a t i t i s m o s a d t h o m e t a s t i c f m o t h e r o r g a n s and o t h e r m i s c e l l a n u u n d n t i n s the m o t c m m n o f w h i c h i s o n g e t i c h e a r t f a i l u r e S o m e of the e c o d i t i o s a h a e a n a d d e d c m p n e n t of o b t r u t e r h e m o l y t c j a u n d i c e w h i c h c o n f u s e s t h p c t r e f r t h l y c a n

Symptomatology The a p p a r a c e a n d s y m p t o m t o l g y f s u b j e c t s u f f e r i n g f r o m j a u n d i c e a r y f m a t a d p e d n g n t h e u d l y n g d e e p r o c e s s p r o d u c i n g the j a u d e P t i e n t s w t h h e m o l y t c j a u d i c f o i n t a c e w i l l m u a l l y h a e n a c c o m p a n y n g n e m a t h e w t h d i s t r u c t i n j a u n d c w i l l c m m n l y n t e t h a t t h e t o o l a e n t b r o w n b e a e o f l a k o f b l e p g m e t ( c h l e t o o l ) w h i l b i l r u b i n g l u u d e w i l l a p p e a r t h u r n e d c a u e i t t o t r n d a r k P u t w i t h m a l g n a s e s w i l l d e m o n s t r t h e u l a g n o f w e i g h t l o s a d a m a w h i l e t h o e w i t h n f m m t r y o d i s a s w i l l c m m n l y h f e v e r h l l s d p r o t a t o n S e e P I G M E N T A T I O N ( R B R )

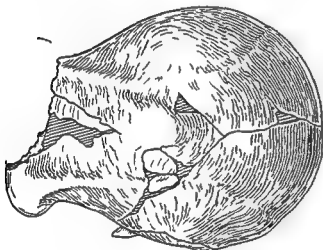
## Java man

The m o s t p r m i t i e k n o w f r o m o f m a n and o n e f t h l i t d u g p r o b a b l y f r o m the l a t e l o w e a d e l y m d d l P l e i s t o c o r r e p o n d i n g t o the F r e i t e r g e l a n d S a n d G l a c i a l p h a s y f t h N o r t h e r n H m s p h The f i r t p e i m d i s c o v e r e d a t T r n l i n t a l J a a b y E u g e e D u b o i s n 1890-1892. n t e d o f s k u l l c p f e m u m a n d i b l e f g m n t and f e w t e t h ( t h e l t n w a s a g n e d t a n g u t n ) D b o i d c r i b e d t h e s e u n d e r t h n m e P t h c t h o p u s e c t u s a s t h f i s t e m p l e f r y p r i m i t m a n t h w a m l e i a t h r p l g l d r y a d d b a t O t h e k l l p a n d j a w f r a g m e n t w e f o n d s o c a t e d w i t h b o t h t h D j e t i n d T r i n i f a u n o f

Java in 1936-1939 chiefly by G. H. R. von Koenigs-  
wald. No implements are known from these beds.  
The thigh bone indistinguishable from that of  
modern man indicates a fully developed posture  
for upright walking. The brain case is extremely  
thick with a cranial capacity averaging about  
850 cm<sup>3</sup> (modern man 1450 cm<sup>3</sup>, gorilla 500 cm<sup>3</sup>).



l t e l y w



d s l y w

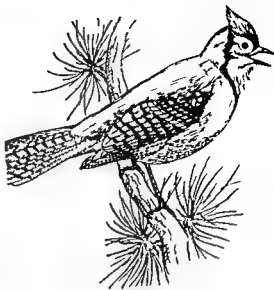
Cran m of Pth ca thropus e ctus ll aft von Ko  
n gswald (Courtesy Ca ■ l t t t n of W h g  
t ■ d; M F A h l y Mo tagu A t t duct o  
to Phys cal A th polo gy 2d ed Chales C Th mas  
1951)

The tooth row is long the lower molars totaling 40 mm An exceptional feature is the presence of a diastema (precanine gap) in the upper to the row related in anthropoid apes to the reception of the projecting lower canine this feature has been found in no other hominid including *Australopithecus* However the canine teeth themselves are not projecting or nonhominid in nature See Folio 512.

MAN  
Bibliography F Weidenreich Giant early man  
from Java and South China *Am Museum Anth op*  
*Lapers* 40(1) 1-134 1915

**Jay**

Any of several smaller members of the family Corvidae differing from other crows in smaller size and in more brilliant plumage. Various pe-



The bluejay (*Cyanocitta cristata*) length is 12" in (From E. L. Palmer Fieldbook of Natural History McGraw Hill 1949)

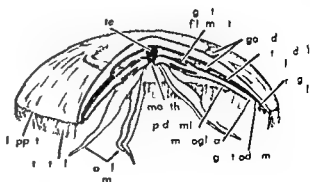
cies occur in both North and tropical America and in the Palearctic. Most common in the bluejay *Cyanocitta cristata* widely distributed and abundant over most of the United States east of the Rocky Mountains and especially characteristic of the eastern deciduous forests. The jays are bold noisy birds that usually travel in small flocks. They feed upon various seeds, berries, nut and insects, and on nestling birds and birds eggs. See CROW.

PASSERIFORMES [308]

## Jellyfish

A large group of common marine animals of the phylum Coelenterata mostly of the class Scyphozoa. There are also a few usually small jellyfish including a single fresh water species which belong to the class Hydrozoa.

The life history of different group varies considerably. In a typical form such as the common jellyfish *urelia aurita* the adults are similar but the exes are eparate. The zygote develops into a small ciliated lar a the planula. This swims about for a time then ettles to the bottom and transforms into a hydroidlike animal the scyphistoma.



The jellyfish *Aurelia* is a dactylogenic (free-living) stage of the life cycle of the *Scyphozoa*. (McGraw-Hill 1957)

helix is a length of but 12 mm a dth n  
nd goes pec l type of m lt pl tr er c  
res lin a m f c nected mall  
n mals ell d phyras The ucerl ke animal  
epa at m om f e s uming (thus mplet ng  
he a e l tag of product n) d tr sform  
nt the ad lt. or xual t ge Mo t jell fi hes  
h a s m l ltern t f g n at ns m t  
e s s a h m lert t of the phyl m  
J l l f h s vary i z from C mus 1/2 in  
und met t the g i a t m jell y Cy a apil  
l g a, ith a d k p to 7 1/4 ft Ros te t cl 1 1/2  
f l g a d h m l t M t jell y fi hes e  
m b mall r alth gh pe m s 3-4 ft cr ar  
k wn.

I color the j lly fi he h w wd a ge f m  
rt lly n n t be tful idesc i p tel Th r  
b stru t e mu h y k that of Hyd a fse  
Hyon ) The muth pe on the unde d f the  
mbr ll food i s ized by the oral arms d  
qbr d by th t ging lls o emat cy ts lo  
c ted these rms d n the f i ge f t a le  
dth bell

Th fesh ate j lly fi h ha be rep ted o ly  
a few times a d f om wid ly ps ted l calite  
the U ted St i s b i when fou d u f few  
d m l ge mbers It the d appe c m  
plet ly d m y e r g s be r c ded fr m that  
loc ty Th lo ma d G mus c mmo al g  
the Ea t Coa t of the U ted St tes e hyd o  
w S COLE TERATA METAGENESIS [J D B]

## Jet (gemology)

A bl k p qu m t r al that i kes h gh p l h  
Jeth been u ed f ma y e tu es f r n m  
t l p oes l t a mp et r ty f l g te l  
h ha a l et dex f 166 (whi h a o t  
f r a r i t ly h h l t ) ha d f 3-4  
n M h ac le d p fic gr ty f 130-135  
Jet is mp t nd d abl a d c n b arved  
ev n turned n a lathe The p cipal o c s s  
Wh by E gl d h t occur h rd b l  
With gh popular f m Pl y d y u til the n e  
tre th est ry th e of jet f j welry p rp es  
h decl ed ma ked ly S GEM [R T L]

## Jet flow

A l cal high elo ty stre m a s r latively stat n  
ary u r und g f i d Fl id may be cau ed to flow  
m jet for van ty of ea s Popul n of a  
body thr gh a f i d may b by jet pr pul i n ly  
a propelle or by a mmp or omp e or The im  
pule wh l u d hydro lectric p wer pla ts  
tak energy fr m a jet f w ter nd con erts it  
nt torq e appl d t a r tat g h ft In fighting  
fire m oth jet f water s p o d ed by nozzle  
to rry water t th fir w tho i separ ting it nt  
d oplets W ter j t re l s u ed t m m rth i  
g ld m n g and they a u ed as m ans of dis  
ip ting f i de ergy

A jet may be formed by flow o t of a cl d on  
dust d wn tr m f om a p r peller Flow through  
n r f i e nozzle a es a jet to f r m In the  
case f pow d elopme t n edle n zle s u ed  
to n ert the p e ure a d k i et i e ergy in the  
pen to k (p p e l d i f om th r e r v r to the  
tu b i e) int sm o th jet of v r i ble diam ter  
and d ch ge but p t c lly c n t a t velo ty  
(Fg 1) The ha g n i e f jet c ompl i hed  
by movem t of th needle fo w rd b k w a d  
With flow thr ough a nozzl of fixed d i meter a  
ch nge nd s h ge cau s a rre p d ng h nge  
i lo ty f th jet

Th f rmat o of a jet req i es that a f rce be  
exerted the f i d n th d c to f th jet An  
qu l and oppo te f ce i e erted n the m ch n  
ca i g th j t and th th p p l i e fo e in  
the s of a n a pla e o r a h p

Wh n j t of liquid ue nto a g s s ch a a  
wat r j t nter g i t t r b l n c with n the  
liqu d nd f i c t n b t w e e n s s a d l qu d ca se  
th l q d j t e ntually t p l l g a l ng with it

Fig 1 Jet flow

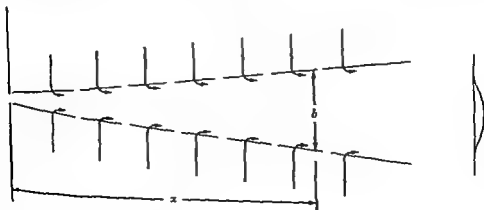


Fig 2 Jet flow in a sam R d m d m

and to allow penetration of the gas into the stream. At length the jet breaks into a spray.

When a jet issues into fluid of the same density the fluid is brought or inducted into the jet (Fig. 2). The jet spreads at a linear rate with  $b = \pi/8$ . Turbulent shear forces reduce the jet velocity within the central cone and equal turbulent shear forces act to increase velocity in the outer portions of the jet. The momentum of the jet must remain substantially constant in the axial direction because no forces act external to the jet. [V.L.S.]

## Jet fuel

Requirements for jet fuels have changed as rapidly as the design of the jet engine. In spite of simplicity in principle the specifications are rigid. The fuels must ignite easily under all conditions; they must burn steadily without blowout or flashback and cleanly with minimal smoking or depositing; they must spray well. The heat content must be high to minimize the airborne weight of fuel and container; the vapor pressure and freezing point must be low.

These requirements are met by paraffinic kerosene or by a mixture of kerosene with gasoline fraction so chosen as to keep aromatic content below 25%. A typical jet fuel is a gasoline-kerosene mixture of boiling range 200–500°F and Reid vapor pressure 2–3 lb. See KEROSENE. [V.L.S.]

## Jet propulsion

The propulsion of a body by means of force resulting from discharge of a fluid jet. This driving force is the reaction to force exerted against the working fluid in giving it momentum in the jet stream. Turbojets, ramjets, and rockets are among the most widely used jet propulsion engines.

**Jet nozzles.** In each of these propulsion engines a jet nozzle converts potential energy of the working fluid into kinetic energy. Hot high-pressure gas escapes through the nozzle, expanding in volume as it drops in pressure and temperature, thus gaining rearward velocity and momentum. This process is governed by the laws of conservation of mass, energy, and momentum, and the pressure-volume-temperature relationships of the gas state equation. See FLUID DYNAMICS; JET FLOW; NOZZLES.

For propulsion systems in which the pressure of the working fluid is not more than approximately twice the absolute ambient pressure a converging nozzle is used (Fig. 1a). The mass flow from the nozzle in terms of conditions at sections 1 and 2 is

$$m = A_2 \rho_2 \sqrt{2gJC_p T_1} \sqrt{\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)^{2\gamma} - \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)^{(\gamma+1)/\gamma}} \quad (1)$$

and the velocity of the jet leaving the nozzle is

$$v_2 = \sqrt{2gJC_p T_1} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{P_2}{P_1}\right)^{(\gamma-1)/\gamma}} \quad (2)$$

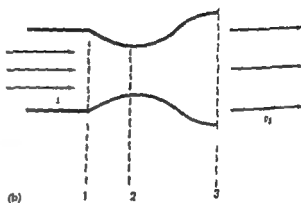
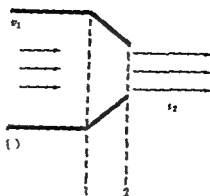


Fig. 1 Propulsion nozzles. (a) Low pressure converging nozzle. (b) High pressure converging-diverging nozzle.

where  $m$  = mass flow slug/sec

$A$  = cross-sectional area ft<sup>2</sup>

$\rho$  = density slug/ft<sup>3</sup>

$J$  = work equivalent of heat ft lb/Btu

$T$  = total temperature °R

$C_p$  = specific heat at constant pressure Btu/(°F)(lb)

$\gamma$  = ratio of specific heats

$P$  = static pressure lb/in.<sup>2</sup>

$v$  = velocity ft/sec

Maximum flow occurs when

$$P_2 = P_1 \left( \frac{2}{\gamma + 1} \right)^{(\gamma-1)/\gamma} = P^* \quad (3)$$

This is the critical pressure at which flow velocity in the nozzle throat is equal to local sound velocity. For air and most combustion gas mixtures

$$P^* \approx 0.5 P_1$$

For propulsion systems in which the working fluid pressure is high compared to ambient pressure a converging-diverging nozzle is used (Fig. 1b). In this nozzle the working fluid continues to expand from the critical throat pressure to ambient pressure at section 3 with a further increase in velocity beyond the sonic throat velocity.

$$v_3 = \sqrt{2gJC_p T_1} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{P_3}{P_1}\right)^{(\gamma-1)/\gamma}} \quad (4)$$

Turbojet. The turbojet is an aircraft propulsion engine used in a aircraft. Thrust rating range from a few hundred to 70,000 lb or more. The engine operates best at high subsonic or supersonic flight speed where the high velocity jet achieves good propulsion efficiency. See PROPULSION.

The turbojet has an engine (see BRAYTON CYCLE). Air enters the inlet diffuser and is compressed adiabatically. The air is then heated in the rotating compressor (Fig. 2). Heat added by burning fuel in the combustion chamber. The hot gases expand in the turbine which drives the compressor. The exhaust gases pass through the jet nozzle converting the remaining available energy of the gas stream into propulsion power (see TURBOJET). In some turbojet motors, heat is added in an afterburner following the turbine to increase the propulsion power output.

The inlet diffuser decelerates the relative velocity of the air, increasing its pressure in a position where the nozzle expands it.

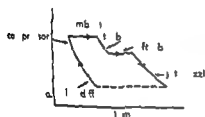


Fig. 2 Turbojet engine diagram

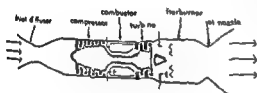


Fig. 3 Simplified schematic diagram of a turbojet engine

(Fig. 3). For supersonic speed a converging diverging passage is required (see SUPERSONIC DIFFUSER). The diffuser throat area may be varied mechanically to match requirements of varying flight speed.

The axial flow compressor shown has alternate rows of rotating and stationary blades which compress the air further (Fig. 4). The individual action is like that of an airplane wing in deflection. The air passing over it. They are arranged so as to accelerate and decelerate the air alternately causing a pressure rise. The air is then compressed through the turbine. The annular passage between the rotor drum and the stator casing.

In the combustion jet fuel like kerosene petroleum fraction is sprayed and burned. As the fuel is compressed or discharged into the combustion space through the fuel inlet metal combustion chamber. They serve to mix the air and fuel for efficient combustion and to cool the line which protects the turbine chamber from the heat of the flame.

The turbine nozzle directs high velocity gas stream against the blades mounted on wheels. The gas is turned in the blades and by this momentum has imparted energy to the wheel. The turbine wheel is connected to the engine compressor (Fig. 5).

In the turbojet engine the fuel supply channels produce the gas stream to promote the combustion and prevent blowout at high altitude. The cooled heat exchanger protects the afterburner from overheating. See AFTERBURNER TURBOJET.

For high speed flight applications a converging jet nozzle of fixed dimensions is used. For supersonic flight a converging-diverging jet nozzle is used. The dimensions of the throat and exit may be adjusted to match the requirements of varying flight speed and altitude.

As compared to the turbojet engine, an afterburner is used to increase the power of the engine by adding fuel to the exhaust gases.

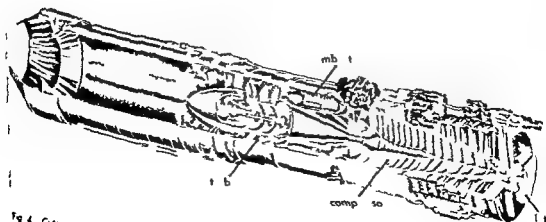


Fig. 4 Cutaway view of a turbojet engine (G. I. Elmer)

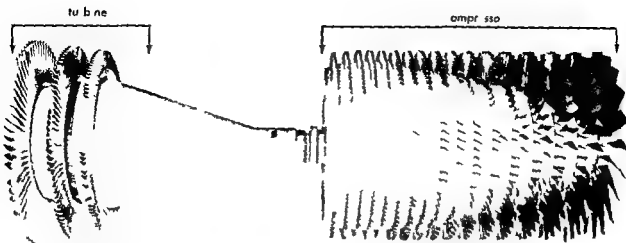


Fig. 5 Compressor and turbine rotor assembly

the compressor turbine shaft. These accessories include fuel and lube oil pumps, tachometer, and in some installations an electric starter generator.

An engine control system senses air pressure and temperature from the inlet diffuser, rotor speed and throttle setting. It computes from the engine by mechanical or electric analog means the required fuel rates and meters fuel flow to the combustor and afterburner. The system senses gas temperature entering the turbine and in the afterburner from which it operates to limit fuel rates so as to prevent overheating or over speeding. Engine characteristics representative of a modern turbojet are given in Table 1.

Table 1 Characteristics of medium sized turbojet

Characteristic	Weight lb	Weight lb
Weight	3600	2900
Length	100	110
Diameter	38	37
Compressor ratio	17	17
Turbine speed	3	3
Take-off thrust	15500	11000
Take-off SFC	0	0.8
Best cruise thrust	600	500
Best SFC	1.0	0.9
(Mach 0.9 at 3000 ft altitude)		
Military thrust	6000	
Military SFC	3	
(Mach 1.5 at 3000 ft altitude)		

Specific fuel consumption (lb/hr) per pound of thrust

**Ramjet** The ramjet is the simplest air-breathing propulsion system and is used principally in guided missiles (Fig. 6). It travels at high velocity compressing air in the inlet diffuser, burning fuel in the air, and discharging it through a jet nozzle. There are no rotating compressor and turbine in the ramjet. The ram pressure ratio is achieved by

its forward velocity are high enough for efficient operation on the Brayton cycle. However, the ram jet must be accelerated up to operating speeds by other means. In most missile applications this is accomplished by a rocket-powered booster stage.

Characteristics representative of a modern ram jet are:

Weight	lb	1000
Length	in	150
Diameter	in	80
Thrust	lb	2000
Specific fuel consumption		2.0
(Mach 4 at 75,000 ft altitude)		

The ramjet is usually designed to cruise within a fairly narrow speed range. The combustor is similar to a turbojet afterburner with fuel injector, V-channel flame holders, and a tapered liner for heat insulation. Control and accessories housed in the bullet nose of the inlet are powered by a very small high-speed turbine driven by ram air bled from the inlet. See RAMJET, also PULSED JET.

**Liquid propellant rocket engine** The liquid propellant rocket engine is a propulsion system used to power missiles and space vehicles. It is used primarily to accelerate a load to high velocity and to do this deliver a large thrust for a relatively short time interval.

Liquid fuel (usually a hydrocarbon, such as kerosene) and oxidizer (usually liquid oxygen) are pumped from tanks to a fuel injector which sprays them into a combustion chamber in which they burn. The hot burning gases expand through a jet nozzle, leaving at very high velocity (Fig. 7). The reaction force is applied on the nozzle wall as the jet tor head is transmitted to the vehicle. Rocket engines remain time-stored by mounting the entire engine gimbal. Fuel and oxidizer pumps have high-pressure centrifugal impellers driven by the gas turbine section.

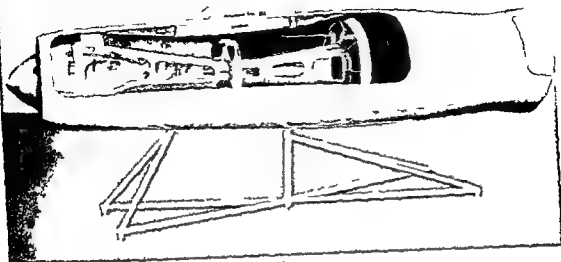


Fig. 6. C + w y model f cm; t (Mo qu dt A II Co)

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 g a t d v t h e t b e u l l y i o b  
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 m p d s c h r g t o s m a l l m b u t i c h a m b e r  
 e d g t h t r b e S t r t g a c m p l h d b v  
 s t r n g t h e a p e l l t i f m g a s p r s i z e d  
 l k s l s o m r o c k e t e n g i n e s t h t b e w o k i g  
 d d c o m p e d h y d r o g e n p r o i d S e e P R O T  
 T L R O C K E T E N G I N E

The effect en f rocket p pellant e mb  
t i nd c ted by t theor t l sp ific m

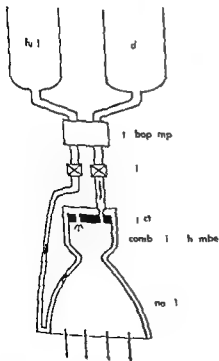


Fig. 7 Liquid-propellant rocket engine (G)

Table 2. Theoretical values of several metal-oxide combinations (1000 g of combination sample press)

Combustion	Temperature
Liquid oxygen	86
Liquid oxygen (liquid hydrogen)	388
Hydrogen peroxide	66
Nitrogen dioxide	274

JPI k roa lk hydroca bon  
f Nitrogen tro de-unsymmet caldim thylhydrazin

pulse F is a dose of low molecular weight re-  
presented because of a gain in energy release  
in the flame the lightweight molecule has a  
greater density and is equally high specific  
impulse.

Typical characteristics of a large liquid propelled rocket engine are as follows:

P o pellant	Liquid oxyg n-JPl
Ch mb r pres ure p	900
Thru t lb	00 000
He ght in	170
N zle ex t d amet n in	60
O er all f <sub>sc</sub> ec ( t 100 000 ft alt tud )	284
B n t me c	200
Weight (not i l d g fu l o fuel tank ) lb	2000

**Solid propellant rocket engine** The solid propellant rocket engine is a type of rocket engine in which the propellant is stored in the combustion chamber and is ignited by a spark plug. It is a simple and reliable design, but it is not as efficient as a liquid propellant engine. It is used in a variety of applications, including space exploration, missile defense, and military aircraft.

This g c n s t f a c a n g f l l d w t a m t  
t u e f p r o p l l a t h m l n g l d f r m Th  
b r n g n e r t g t h g h p r e g e s w h c e s  
e p t h g h o z z l a s h g h e l c i t y j e t c t n g  
f r w a r d t r t T o t e t c h e l  
m e n o z z l r c n t r u t e d s o t h t h y c a n t



A large engine such as the first stage of a 1500 mile ballistic missile might have the general characteristics

Propellant	Potassium perchlorate polyurethane and additives
Length in	220
Diameter in	50
Gross weight lb	20 000
Average thrust lb	80 000
Burn time sec	60
Over all $I_p$ sec	230

Propellant combinations are selected to contain as much fuel and oxidizer and as little inert substance as possible. As with liquid propellants combinations with low molecular weights are preferred because they result in greater specific impulse for a given energy release. The propellant mixture must burn at a relatively slow uniform rate certain inhibitors are added to control this.

There are now in use a variety of propellants of two general classes. Double base types contain nitrocellulose and nitroglycerin plus additives for stability and to control combustion rates. Composite types contain ammonium or potassium perchlorate granules imbedded in a rubberlike hydrocarbon compound. See also ELECTROMAGNETIC PROPULSION [D.C.]

**Bibliography** J. V. Casamassa and R. D. Bent *Jet Aircraft Power Systems* 2d ed. 1957. C. W. Smith *Aircraft Gas Turbines* 1956. G. P. Sutton *Rocket Propulsion Elements* 2d ed. 1956. M. J. Zucrow *Aircraft and Missile Propulsion* vol. 2 1958.

## Jet stream

A relatively narrow fast moving wind current flanked by more slowly moving current. Jet streams are observed principally in the zone of preailing westerlies above the lower troposphere and in most cases reach maximum intensity with regard both to speed and to concentration near the tropopause. At a given time the position and intensity of the jet stream may significantly influence aircraft operations because of the great speed of the wind at the jet core and the rapid spatial variation of wind speed in its vicinity. Lying in the zone of maximum temperature contrast between cold air masses to the north and warm air masses to the south the position of the jet stream on a given day usually coincides in part with the region of greatest temperature in the lower troposphere though portions of the jet stream occur over regions which are entirely devoid of cloud.

**Characteristics** The specific characteristics of the jet stream depend upon whether the reference is to a single instantaneous flow pattern or to an averaged circulation pattern such as an averaged circulation pattern with respect to time or averaged with respect both to time and to longitude.

If the winter circulation pattern on the Northern Hemisphere is averaged with respect to both time and longitude a westerly jet stream is found at an elevation of about 13 kilometers (km) near latitude 25. The speed of the averaged wind at the jet core is about 148 km/hr (80 knot). In summer this jet is displaced poleward to a position near latitude 42. It is found at an elevation of about 12 km with a maximum speed of about 56 km/hr (30 knots). In both seasons a speed equal to one-half the peak value is found approximately 15° of latitude south and 20° of latitude north and 5-10 km above and below the location of the jet core at all times.

If the winter circulation is averaged only with respect to time it is found that both the intensity and the latitude of the westerly jet stream vary from one sector of the Northern Hemisphere to another. The most intense portion with a maximum speed of about 185 km/hr (100 knots) lies over the extreme western portion of the North Pacific Ocean at about latitude 22. Lesser maxima of about 157 km/hr (85 knots) are found at latitude 35° over the east coast of North America and at latitude 21° over the eastern Sahara and over the Arabian Sea. In summer maxima are found at latitude 46° over the Great Lakes region at latitude 40° over the western Mediterranean Sea and at latitude 35° over the central North Pacific Ocean. Peak speeds in the two regions range between 14 and 83 km/hr (40 and 45 knots). The degree of concentration of the jet stream is measured by the distance from the core to the position at which the speed is one-half the core speed is only slightly greater than the degree of concentration of the jet stream averaged with respect to time and longitude. At both seasons and at all longitudes the elevation of the jet streams varies between 11 and 14 km.

**Variations** On individual days there is a considerable latitudinal variability of the jet stream particularly in the western North American and western European sectors. It is principally for this reason that the time averaged jet stream is not well defined in the region. There is also a great day to day variability in the intensity of the jet stream throughout the hemisphere. On a given winter day speeds in the jet core may exceed 310 km/hr (200 knot) for a distance of several hundred miles along the direction of the wind. Lateral wind shears in the direction normal to the jet stream frequently attain values as high as 100 knots per 300 nautical miles (185 km/hr/556 km) to the right of the direction of the jet stream current and as high as 100 knot per 100 nautical mile (185 km/hr/185 km) to the left. Vertical shear below and above the jet core are often as large as 70 knot/1000 ft (37 km/305 m).

Daily jet streams are predominantly westerly but are irregularly westerly and occasionally jet streams may occur in mid or high latitude when ridges and troughs in the normal westerly current are particularly pronounced. In unusually intense cases of anomalous jet occurrence at particular latitudes.



A large engine such as the first stage of a 1500 mile ballistic missile might have these general characteristics

Propellant	Potassium perchlorate polyurethane and additives
Length in	220
Diameter in	50
Gross weight lb	20 000
Average thrust lb	80 000
Burn time sec	60
Over all $I_p$ sec	230

Propellant combinations are selected to contain as much fuel and oxidizer and as little inert substance as possible. As with liquid propellants combinations with low molecular weights are preferred because they result in greater specific impulse for a given energy release. The propellant mixture must burn at a relatively slow uniform rate; certain inhibitors are added to control this.

There are now in use a variety of propellants of two general classes. Double base types contain nitrocellulose and nitroglycerin plus additives for stability and to control combustion rates. Composite types contain ammonium or potassium perchlorate granules imbedded in a rubberlike hydrocarbon compound. See also ELECTROMAGNETIC PROPULSION.

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## Jet stream

A relatively narrow fast moving wind current flanked by more slowly moving current. Jet streams are observed principally in the zone of preailing westerlies above the lower troposphere and in most cases reach maximum intensity with regard both to speed and to concentration near the tropopause. At a given time the position and intensity of the jet stream may significantly influence aircraft operations because of the great speed of the wind at the jet core and the rapid spatial variation of wind speed in its vicinity. Lying in the zone of maximum temperature contrast between cold air masses to the north and warm air masses to the south the position of the jet stream on a given day usually coincides in part with the regions of greatest storminess in the lower troposphere though portions of the jet stream occur over regions which are entirely devoid of cloud.

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Daily jet stream maps predominantly westerly but are rather thoroughly and occasionally jet streams may occur in mid or high latitudes when ridges and troughs in the general westerly current are particularly strong and when a high in the upper atmosphere and anticyclonic occur at upper levels.

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It appe rs that an te se j t t am cu t  
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STROPHIC AT IOSPHERE GEOSTROPHIC W I D  
STORM VORTEX [F 5]

## Jet velocity

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re

l p a t e m t b jet with aft b r n a  
mple co ergent va ble a ha t n z z l  
w d m t n t l the turb ba k p re i  
th t j p p e th n e pt m z e h u t j t eff y  
fa t bojet w th t sterb ne ble-re  
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d m i th p e s f s ch ar at i flight  
d t a t m l l ng h t d O  
p r o n e ng f lly ble n e g e t d  
g n t zles re u e d t p t m both t r n l  
eng n d t d j t eff n y  
l th n b r th ng ock t y l the abo  
apt d n e p p ly th t f ock t i  
d p n d t f flight speed R t t t t m  
t thru t d e c tly p r port l t n z z l e  
t a t h e r y p l p e a t m t m S  
Pa u c l

[ 11 ]

## Jetty

An art ficial b r r r t iver m th m d harbor n  
tr c s t deff ct and reg l te r i x flow and tidal  
currents p r t ula ly m reas where l ttoral d f t  
c u e s formation of bars ac chan el entra ce  
Jetties a e lult ngly o a pairs curv d or  
t ight to prevent l lto al dr ft ac r s cha nel  
a d t mcr as velo ty f t d l f w which keep  
the chann l pen J t t s re con t ncted to unt  
natural condit o a d ften r emb l breakwat r s  
altho gh s l d he t pule wall of timber c c te  
a d t e l h e be n u e d e ten ely \ fine ex m  
ple is the 4<sup>1</sup>/<sub>2</sub> m le jetty t the mouth f the  
Columb R e O e l S m COASTAL ENG EER  
ING RIVER E C I EERING [E J Q]

## Jig fixture and die design

The pl n n g of tools fo u e in m king production  
parts f i g s po it on part fo mach n g p atio  
s h d l l i m m lling r m g and bo i m and  
they phys ally guide the cutt ng t o l s Fixt es  
p s u t p t fo mach ng weld ng r as embly  
pe at n s but permit cutt ng t o l to find the  
w n path Dies are tool wh ch when mo nted in a  
p e s prod ce p r t by p ch g a d f r m i g

Jig and fixture construction Fabric ted t el  
tr rel ed afte w l d g d w th hardened  
teel sert at th w ar po t h m erally super  
eded ast n s jig and f i ture c t c t on  
Alumi m and mag s um are u d f m ny p  
ph t n s be s th y a e l ghter h a die and  
l s c tly t f b cuate nd m ch n When la m  
part r n l d uch s th e n t m b l o  
raft du t r e s th poxy resins reinforced  
with f i e gla t e u table mat l can b  
u e d in c ju c t n with h d ened t l n t a d  
bu h s k k t nd oth l w melting po t a l  
loys r u e d wh r d f f i c l t t u mu t be du  
ph ted

L a n g meth d Th ac u c i e s b i a n e d by  
jig f i t u e s a d j e de t u p o the a n e y  
w n wh h part a b c n t n l y p i t n e d  
in the f i t d u b q n t j g f i t r The d  
n n n l e t e of th part n l l s f a c t  
O n d s b l p r c t i t h th f i t j g r f i  
t u r n e r e s f p a t i l c a t i g p t s  
o n th p a t n the f m f m l l e d f c e r h l e  
wh ch a b d x b q t t p e a t Th  
same loc t i g p t s ho l d be e d fo a many  
p r a t a p ble

C l p g m y def r m the part f the lo t ng  
p t s re i l l d d t g e o l y Lo t ng  
p t s h u l d h p e d s f a p a t s the part  
design p n t d b e a m l l i p o b l d  
e r n g th need f deq at p p t n d a n t  
p t d w e Th e butt r m l l p d det r n n e  
a plan a d top o p n d t e m n loc t i  
w th n th t p l n e (Fig 1)

Th f two m e t a ght p t d e  
h l f lo t ng f o m h l e s l i c a l ght d  
m l t b e t w e n h l e s w m k t d f

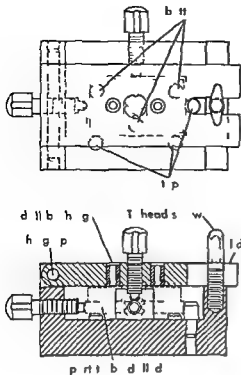


Fig 1 Buttons and stops locate part in drill jig

difficult to load or unload the part. The most common method is to use one round pin and one diamond or elliptical pin (Fig 2).

Self-centering devices must be used when it is necessary to locate centrally from two surfaces that can vary. When locating round parts it is preferable to work from hardened V-shaped locators. The angle of the V should be 90°. Sight holes should be provided to permit the operator to observe visually whether or not the part is down on stops and buttons. Where practical, multiple station jigs and fixtures should be made in such a way that parts can be loaded while others are being machined. The cost of loading or unloading parts is often greater than the machining cost.

**Clamping.** The clamping arrangement should be simple. Clamping pressure is applied over or between the pads or buttons and standard vices are adapted as machining fixtures where practical. Machining is done toward the fixed jaw. Standard air cylinder are used. If more than three supports in one plane are necessary, all in excess of three should be adjustable. Where a wrench must be used, all nuts should be standardized. Large hand knolls ensure ease of operation and cam-type clamps are usually faster and more positive than other methods.

**Tool guides.** In jig, tool guide consists of bushing that guide drill, reamers and boring bars. American Standard Association size should be used when possible. Bushing normally extend as close to the part as practical to assure accuracy of hole location and to eliminate chip tangle within the jig.

The use of slip-removable bushing in hardened liner permit secondary operation such as tapping, reaming and counterboring. Where accuracy

demands, reamers may also be guided in bushings either by pilot or by their cutting edges.

Tool guides in fixture are limited to set pieces for establishing a relationship between the cutting tools and the fixture. They are permanently located on the fixture and clearance is allowed between the set pieces and the cutting tools. A feeler gage the thickness of the clearance is then used to locate and set the cutting tools.

**Chip control.** During drilling, chips are either brought out through the bushing by allowing zero clearance between the bushing and the part or permitted to stay in the jig by allowing sufficient clearance for that purpose. The former method is the more desirable, but if tolerances are not critical and the chips are discontinuous, wear on the bushings can be reduced by the latter method. To compromise between zero and ample clearance create the disadvantages of both with none of their advantages.

Jigs and fixtures are designed with sufficient openings for chips to be removed by gravity, coolant flow, brush or air blast. Dust collectors are used to collect dry grinding chip or chips of non-metallic or toxic materials.

**Safety.** Practice dictates the use of 3/4-13-in. or larger tapped holes for eyebolts in all jigs or fixtures weighing 50 lb or more and the removal of all sharp corners that could injure operators.

**Stamping dies.** Dies produce parts either by stressing the part material in shear until fracture occurs or by stretching the part material beyond the yield point where it takes a permanent set but not beyond the rupture point where it breaks. Dies using the former method include blanking, piercing, cut-off and lancing dies, and those employing the latter method include drawing, bending, embossing.

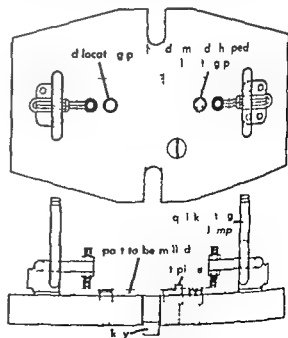


Fig 2 Round pin located with diamond pin locator part is loaded easily and milled



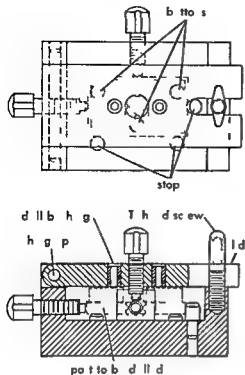


Fig 1 Buttons and stops locate part d l l g

difficult to load or unload the part. The most common method is to use one round pin and one diamond or elliptical pin (Fig 2).

Self-centering devices must be used when it is necessary to locate centrally from two surfaces that can vary. When locating round parts it is preferable to work from hardened V-shaped locators. The angle of the V should be 90°. Sight holes should be provided to permit the operator to observe visually whether or not the part is down on stops and buttons. Where practical, multiple station jigs and fixtures should be made in such a way that parts can be loaded while others are being machined. The cost of loading or unloading parts is often greater than the machining cost.

**Clamping.** The clamping arrangement should be simple. Clamping pressure is applied over or between the pads or buttons, and standard vises are adapted as machining fixtures where practical. Machining is done toward the fixed jaw. Standard air cylinders are used. If more than three supports in one plane are necessary, all in excess of three should be adjustable. Where a wrench must be used, all nuts should be standardized. Large hand knurlers ensure ease of operation, and cam-type clamps are usually faster and more positive than other methods.

**Tool guides.** In jig, tool guides consist of bushings that guide drill, reamers and boring bars. American Standard V-chamfer sizes should be used when possible. Bushings normally extend as close as possible to the part as practical to assure accuracy of hole location and to eliminate chip tangle within the jig.

The use of slip-removable bushing in hardened liner permits secondary operation such as tapping, reaming, and counterboring. Where accuracy

demands, reamers may also be guided in slip bushings either by pilots or by their cutting edges.

Tool guides in fixtures are limited to set pieces for establishing a relationship between the cutting tools and the fixture. There are permanently located on the fixture and clearance is allowed between the set pieces and the cutting tools. A feeler gage the thickness of the clearance is then used to locate and set the cutting tools.

**Chip control.** During drilling, chips are either brought out through the bushing by allowing zero clearance between the bushing and the part or permitted to stay in the jig by allowing sufficient clearance for that purpose. The former method is the more desirable, but if tolerances are not crucial and the chips are discontinuous, wear on the bushings can be reduced by the latter method. To compromise between zero and ample clearance creates the disadvantage of both with none of their advantages.

Jigs and fixtures are designed with sufficient openings for chips to be removed by gravity, coolant flow, brush, or air blast. Dust collectors are used to collect dry grinding chips or chips of non-metallic or toxic materials.

**Safety.** Practice dictates the use of 1/2-13-in. or larger tapped holes for eyebolts in all jigs or fixtures weighing 50 lb or more and the removal of all sharp corners that could injure operator.

**Stamping dies.** Dies produce parts either by stretching the part material in shear until fracture occurs or by stretching the part material beyond the yield point where it takes a permanent set but not beyond the rupture point where it breaks. Dies using the former method include blanking, piercing, cut-off, and lancing dies, and those employing the latter method include drawing, bending, embossing

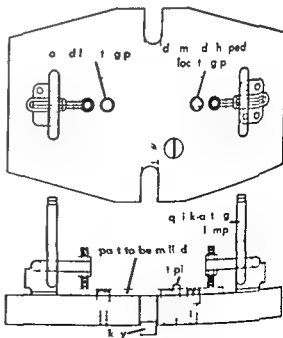


Fig 2 Round pin paired with diamond pin locates part and allows part to be loaded readily in mill g





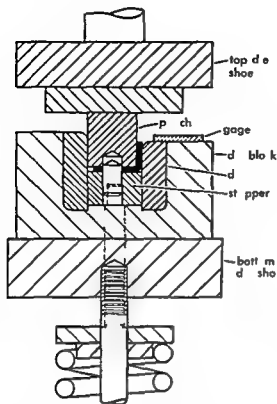


Fig 5 Bending die showing adequate clearance between hole and bend

vious to bending operations are subject to material thickness tolerances and the stretch of the material which occurs during the bending operations (Fig 5)

**General design** A tool lineup is made to determine the sequence of operations and the type and number of dies required to complete the part or blank. A blank layout is made to obtain optimum material usage and to reduce scrap (Fig 6) and the material is checked to make sure the flange is on an acceptable side of the blank. Material is normally fed into the die from right to left or front to back. When tolerances permit the finished edge of the stock can be used as a side of the blank.

Tonnage to shear or form is computed and the die is designed for a pressure that will handle this capacity. It is generally possible to improve die life by using a press rated for twice the required capacity. Work can be performed on presses of less than the computed capacity by staggering the lengths of punches or by adding shear to the punch or die. Safety requires that tapped holes be pro-

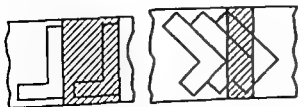


Fig 6 Blank layout comparison of material

vided for eyebolts in dies 50 lb or more in weight and that safety bolts be provided to hold the dies together when not in use. Guards and undercuts are applied to dies to protect the hands of the operator. Standard punches and die inserts for round, oblong, square or rectangular holes can be purchased in small increments of size and are readily available for replacement when breakage occurs. See **MACHINING OPERATIONS METAL FORMING SHEET METAL FORMING** [R.L.C.]

**Bibliography** F Walcott (ed) *Tool Engineers Handbook* 1949

## Johnes disease

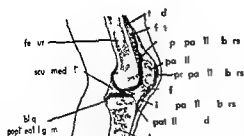
A specific enteritis or inflammation of the gastrointestinal tract of cattle, sheep and deer caused by the bacterium *Mycobacterium paratuberculosis*. The disease is spread by animals having eaten the droppings of sick animals and is diagnosed by the clinical symptoms, the presence of *M. paratuberculosis* in the droppings and by a positive skin reaction to johnin, a preparation similar to tuberculin. *M. paratuberculosis* is a short thick acid fast rod which can be artificially cultivated only on media containing a substance or substances as yet unidentified present in extracts of acid fast bacilli and of certain plants. The disease has an incubation period of a year or more. Sick animals have intermittent diarrhea without fever and gradually become emaciated. The mucosa of the small intestine shows gross thickening and the mesenteric lymph nodes enlarge without ulceration. Calcium (death of tissue with change to a cheese-like consistency) and calcification do not occur. The drugs streptomycin, viomycin, 4-aminosalicylic acid and isonicotinic acid hydrazide although used successfully in the treatment of tuberculosis have been used without success in the treatment of Johnes disease. Animals that have Johnes disease must be destroyed because they rarely recover and present a focus of infection for other animals in the herd. See **TUBERCULOSIS** [C.H.M.]

## Joint (anatomical)

The region or point of contact between bony surfaces. It is known as an articulation. There are three general types of articulation: the synarthrosis or immovable, the amphiarthrosis or slightly movable and the diarthrosis or freely movable.

Synarthrosis include those immovable joints where the bony surfaces are fixed but usually separated slightly by a small amount of fibrocartilage. The cartilage includes the sutures of the skull and the type known as synchondrosis where a piece of cartilage acts as a temporary form of articulation. The latter condition is seen in children before the cartilage is converted into the bone of adulthood. Other special forms of synarthrosis occur such as gomphosis, the insertion of the teeth into the bony socket or alveoli of the jaw.

In the slightly movable amphiarthroses, the opposing bony surfaces are separated by a flattened articular disk or surface of rather small



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SYSTEM SKELETAL SYSTEM

[E C S T]

# Joint (anatomical) disorders

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tory and coincides with the clinical state. Although  
the exact cause is unknown a form of hypersensi-  
tivity to a prior streptococcal infection is appar-  
ently contributory.

Rheumatoid arthritis one of the mo t common  
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o f t h e w e i g h t b e a r i n g j o i n t s o f t h e k n e e h i p a n d  
s p i n e. The e n d o f t h e f i g e s a r e a l s o i n v o l e d

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s y p h i s

G o u t s a n e m p l f a r t h r i t i s c a u s e d b y m e t a  
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m l t y i p i n e b a k d w n t h a t p r o d u c e a c c u m u l a t i o n  
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J o i n t d o r d s m a y b e f o r m e d i n c e r t a i n r v u s  
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j u t t l e o m a y b e e c d r y t o n e r v e d m g e  
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M a y s y t e m d e a s o f u n k n o w n o r m a t e d i f  
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t i o n d R a y a d a d e a d i e a e f b l o d v e s  
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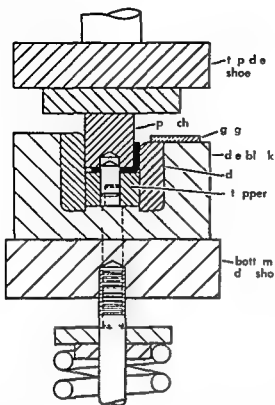


Fig 5 Bending die showing adequate clearance between hole and bend

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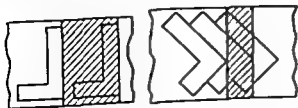


Fig 6 Blank layout comparison of material used to produce a blank (shaded portion) by two different layouts

vided for eyebolts in dies 50 lb or more in weight and that safety bolts be provided to hold the dies together when not in use. Guards and undercuts are applied to dies to protect the hands of the operator. Standard punches and die inserts for round, oblong, square or rectangular holes can be purchased in small increments of size and are readily available for replacement when breakage occurs. See **MACHINING OPERATIONS METAL FORMING SHEET METAL FORMING** [RLC]

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## Johnes disease

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## Joint (anatomical)

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In the slightly movable or amphiarthrotic joints opposing bony surfaces are separated by a fibrocartilaginous disk often of rather simple structure. Common examples include the inter-

North America to the tropics: Central America  
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[FDS]

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# function diode

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e. f. d. f. d. g. w. g. t. h. q. Low.  
p. o. l. n. j. t. d. o. d. e. s. m. l. m. d. l.  
l. m. m. l. l. y. b. o. d. e. d. L. a. l. t. y. p.  
d. l. y. f. g. y. t. h. a. l. l. y. l. d. f. f. f.  
p. l. e. s. t. h. l. d. l. f. m. t. h. e. g. p. h.  
g. t. h. j. t. n. d. r. y. t. l. p. p. t.

Fabrication methods G. l. l. d. e. d. g. e. r. m. a. n. i. u. m.  
d. d. a. r. m. a. d. e. l. y. p. r. e. p. a. r. g. m. a. l. l. w. a. f. e. r. o. f.  
t. y. p. g. r. m. a. n. i. u. m. a. b. o. u. t. 40. m. i. l. n. a. d. and. 15.  
m. i. l. t. h. k. A. f. t. e. r. e. t. c. h. i. n. g. e. a. c. h. w. a. f. e. r. i. s. l. d. r. e. d.  
t. m. t. l. p. e. d. e. s. t. a. l. l. g. a. l. l. i. u. m. a. l. l. y. w. i. r. e.  
w. l. d. e. d. t. a. e. c. d. p. l. t. a. l. The. f. r. e. e. e. n. d. o. f. the.  
g. l. d. w. r. i. the. p. l. c. l. g. a. i. t. i. l. u. r. s. a. e. f. i. l.  
g. e. r. m. a. n. i. u. m. w. a. f. e. r. s. n. d. l. n. d. e. d. (w. l. d. e. d.) w. t. h. a.  
p. i. l. e. f. c. r. r. e. t. D. i. r. g. t. i. l. w. l. d. n. g. p. e. r. a. t. i. n.  
m. e. g. e. r. m. a. n. i. u. m. i. d. l. d. i. t. h. t. h. e. l. d. and. u. p. o. n.  
c. l. i. n. g. r. e. c. t. a. l. l. i. z. e. n. t. l. f. e. f. i. t. h. e. n. d.  
l. d. g. e. r. m. a. n. i. u. m. The. r. e. c. t. y. t. l. i. e. d. r. e. g. i. n.  
(F. g. l.) i. s. p. t. y. p. e. b. e. c. a. s. i. c. t. u. n. m. f. i. t. h.  
g. a. l. l. i. u. m. i. m. p. u. r. i. t. y. f. i. l. e. g. l. d. w. r. The. j. u. n. c. t. i. o. n. r.  
b. a. r. r. i. e. r. i. s. t. h. e. d. e. v. i. s. i. o. n. b. o. d. a. v. i. l. b. e. t. w. e. e. n. the.  
r. e. c. t. y. t. a. l. l. z. e. d. p. t. y. p. r. e. g. i. n. d. the. u. n. d. e. r. l. e. d.  
t. y. p. y. a. l.

F. e. d. l. i. m. i. n. u. m. w. r. l. i. c. n. d. i. d. e. s. a. r. e. f. i. r. e.  
t. e. d. i. a. m. and. w. i. t. h. a. r. e. u. l. t. y. i. m. i. l. a. r. t.  
g. l. d. l. n. d. e. d. g. e. r. m. a. n. i. u. m. d. i. d. The. n. s. g. n. i. f. i. c. a. n. t.  
d. i. f. f. e. r. e. n. c. e. i. s. t. h. a. t. i. l. b. o. l. i. n. g. p. a. t. i. s. c. a. r. r. i. e. d.  
t. i. v. i. e. a. t. g. i. t. e. n. t. u. r. a. e. m. l. y. r. a. t. h. r. t. h. a. b. y.  
l. e. c. t. r. i. c. a. l. p. u. l. i. n. g.

The. h. i. g. h. p. w. e. r. m. a. m. u. n. i. t. l. a. v. e. a. l. l. y.  
j. u. t. w. h. i. t. i. s. a. l. d. a. r. y. b. e. t. w. e. e. n. a.  
r. e. c. t. y. t. a. l. l. e. d. l. y. p. t. y. p. e. r. e. g. i. n. d. t. h. n. t. y. p.  
m. a. t. r. i. l. f. t. h. g. n. a. l. r. y. t. a. l. j. u. t. i. n. the. g. l. d.  
b. o. d. e. u. t. The. d. i. f. f. e. n. c. e. h. e. r. i. s. t. h. t. h. a. l. l. y.  
u. u. a. l. l. y. i. s. d. i. m. i. n. i. s. t. d. o. f. g. l. d. g. a. l. l. i. u. m. a. d. the.  
a. e. f. i. t. h. r. e. c. t. y. t. a. l. l. e. d. r. e. g. i. n. s. o. f. the. o. d. o. r. o. f.  
l. m. r. a. t. h. e. r. t. h. 10. c. m. Th. i. s. u. n. p. o. c. e. s.  
c. a. r. r. i. e. d. t. n. s. i. f. i. c. a. n. t. d. the. y. i. l. l. i.  
m. t. e. d. a. f. t. w. a. r. d.

The. h. i. g. h. e. r. p. w. e. r. s. i. c. o. n. u. n. i. t. a. r. m. a. d. e. b. y. f. i.  
n. f. e. r. y. t. h. i. s. t. a. l. m. m. a. l. l. y. o. n. o. n. u. r.  
f. e. c. f. a. i. l. n. w. f. e. r. d. i. s. t. r. i. b. u. t. i. o. n. g. w. i. t. h. t.  
l. d. Th. j. s. n. a. t. i. t. y. p. a. l. l. y. j. u. t. i. n. t. i. n.  
l. t. h. g. h. the. r. e. c. t. y. t. a. l. l. e. d. e. g. n. i. e. t. m. e. l. y. t. h. m.  
A. e. c. d. m. t. h. o. d. o. f. m. k. i. g. h. g. h. p. w. e. l. m.  
t. t. d. i. f. f. e. u. s. t. b. l. p. t. y. p. e. i. m. p. u. r. i. t. y. a. p. o. r.  
t. h. r. i. e. f. a. w. e. r. f. t. p. s. l. o. n. The.  
m. p. t. y. a. p. o. i. u. a. l. l. y. s. w. e. p. t. t. h. w. f. e. r. b. y. a.  
t. d. i. f. f. w. g. r. e. g. s. A. f. t. e. r. the. m. p. t. y.  
h. p. t. t. d. t. h. w. f. e. r. i. s. a. f. f. i. t. d. p. i. t. h. t. o.  
p. r. d. a. g. o. o. d. p. j. c. t. n. t. h. w. f. i. s. m. o. e. d.

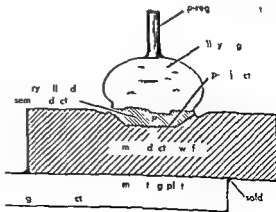


Fig 1 S. t. f. b. d. d. f. a. . .

Other relatively rare forms of arthropathy are occasionally encountered See GONORRHEA HYPFR SENSITIVITY PNEUMOCOCCUS RHUMATIC FEVER STREPTOCOCCUS SYPHILIS TUBERCULOSIS URIC ACID [F C ST]

## Joint (mechanical)

The surface at which two or more mechanical or structural components are united Whenever parts of a machine or structure are brought together and fastened into position a joint is formed (see STRUCTURAL CONNECTIONS) Mechanical joints can be fabricated by a great variety of methods but all can be classified into two general types temporary (screw snap or clamp for example) and permanent (braze welded or riveted for example) The list that follows is not exhaustive but does include many of the more common methods of forming joints

1 Screw threads Bolt and nut machine screw and nut machine screw into tapped hole threaded parts (rod pipe) self tapping screw lock screw studs with nuts threaded inserts coiled wire inerts drive crews See BOLT BOLTED JOINT NUT SCREW SCREW FASTENER WASHER

2 Rivets Solid hollow explosive and other blind side types See RIVET RIVETED JOINT

3 Welding See WELDED JOINT WELDING AND CUTTING OF METALS

4 Soldering See SOLDERING

5 Brazing See BRAZING

6 Adhesive See ADHESIVE ASPHALT AND ASPHALTITE EPOXY RESIN GLUE MUCILAGE

7 Friction held Nails dowels pins clamps clips keys shrink and press fits

8 Interlocking Twisted tabs snap ring twisted wire crimp

9 Other Peening staking wiring stapling retaining rings magnetic All pipe joints are made with screw threads couplings caulking and by welding or brazing masonry joints are made with cement mortar [W H C]

## Joule

A unit of energy or work in the meter kilogram second (mks) system of units being equal to the work done by a force of magnitude 1 newton when the point at which the force is applied is displaced 1 meter in the direction of the force Joule is a short name for newton meter of energy or work and hence is equivalent to 10 ergs and also to 1 watt sec The present accepted relation between the 15 calorie and the joule is  $1 \text{ cal}_{15} = 4.1855 \pm 0.0004$  joules The term joule should never be used as a synonym for newton meter of torque See WORK, see also UNITS SYSTEMS OF [D F R]

## Joule's law

A quantitative relation between the quantity of heat produced in a conductor and an electric current flowing through it As experimentally determined and announced by J P Joule the law states that when a current of voltaic electricity is propa-

gated along a metallic conductor the heat evolved in a given time is proportional to the resistance of the conductor multiplied by the square of the electric intensity Today the law would be stated as  $H = RI^2$  where  $H$  is rate of evolution of heat in watts the unit of heat being the joule  $R$  is resistance in ohms and  $I$  is current in amperes This statement is more general than the one sometimes given that specifies that  $R$  be independent of  $I$  Also it is now known that the application of the law is not limited to metallic conductors

Although Joule's discovery of the law was based on experimental work it can be deduced rather easily for the special case of steady conditions of current and temperature As a current flows through a conductor one would expect the observed heat output to be accompanied by a loss in potential energy of the moving charges that constitute the current This loss would result in a descending potential gradient along the conductor in the direction of the current flow as usually defined If  $E$  is the total potential drop this loss by definition is equal to  $E$  in joules for every coulomb of charge that traverses the conductor The loss conceivably might appear as heat as a change in the internal energy of the conductor as work done on the environment or as some combination of the two The second is ruled out however because the temperature is constant and no physical or chemical change in a conductor as a result of current flow has ever been detected The third is ruled out by hypothesis leaving only the generation of heat Therefore  $H = EI$  in joules per second or watts By definition  $R = E/I$  a ratio which has positive varying value Elimination of  $E$  between the two equations gives

$$H = RI^2 \quad (1)$$

which is Joule's law as stated above If  $I$  change to a new steady value  $I'$   $R$  to  $R'$  and  $H$  to  $H'$  then  $H = RI^2$  as before The simple case occurs where  $R$  is independent of  $I$  (see OHM LAW) If the current is varying the resulting variation in temperature and internal energy undoubtedly exists and strictly speaking should be allowed for in the theory Yet in all but the most exceptional cases any correction would be negligible

This phenomenon is irreversible in the sense that a reversal of the current will not reverse the outflow of heat a feature of paramagnetic impedance in many problems in physics and engineering Thus the heat evolved by an alternating current is found by taking the time average of the value of  $I^2$  (1) Incidentally the change in internal energy if it were included in the theory would average to zero Hence the equation continues to take the same form  $\bar{H} = \bar{R} \bar{I}^2$  for alternating current applications See HEATING ELECTRIC [L C H]

## Juglandales

An order of the plant kingdom Dicotyledonous consisting of one family (Juglandaceae) with 6 genera including 60 species occurring principally in the



from the diffusion furnace and one surface is lapped and etched to remove the  $p$  type layer and expose the  $n$  type material for the  $n$  region contact

**Junction rectification** Rectification occurs in a semiconductor wherever there is a relatively abrupt change of conductivity type. In any semiconductor the product of the concentrations of the majority and minority current carriers is a temperature dependent equilibrium constant. The conductivity is proportional to the majority carrier concentration and inversely proportional to the minority carrier concentration. When a  $p-n$  junction is reverse biased ( $p$  region negative with respect to  $n$  region) the majority carriers are blocked completely by the barrier and only the minority carriers can flow under the barrier. This minority carrier current is the sum of the individual currents from the  $n$  and  $p$  regions and each component is inversely proportional to the conductivity of its region. In germanium of about 10 ohm cm resistivity a  $p-n$  junction reverse leakage

current is about  $10^{-8}$  amp/cm<sup>2</sup>. In silicon of the same resistivity it is about  $10^{-7}$  amp/cm<sup>2</sup> because of the much lower equilibrium constant of silicon.

When a  $p-n$  junction is forward biased ( $p$  region positive with respect to the  $n$  region) the majority hole and electron distributions can flow into the opposite region since the barrier is markedly lowered. Since electrons flowing into a  $p$  region or holes flowing into an  $n$  region represent a great increase in minority carrier concentration the thermodynamic equilibrium of the holes and electrons is disturbed and the product of their concentrations increases as the junction is approached. The resistivity of both the  $n$  and  $p$  type regions is considerably lowered by these excess minority carriers and the forward current is greater than the current through a geometrically equivalent bar of material containing no  $p-n$  junction.

The electrons in an  $n$  type semiconductor are given up to the conduction process by donor impurity atoms which remain as fixed positively charged centers. Similarly the holes of a  $p$  region

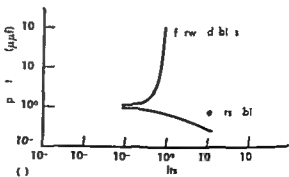
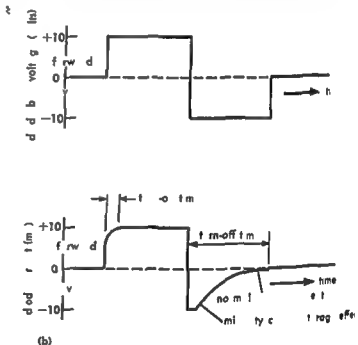
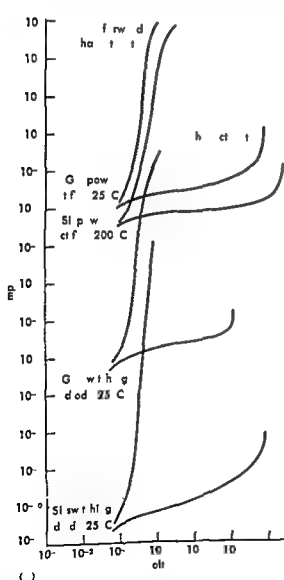


Fig 2 Junction diode characteristics (a) Diode rectifier characteristics (b) Diode switch characteristics (c) Silicon switch guard capacitance

ected by the impurity of electro by a cept r  
impurity atom which remain a fixed negat ely  
charged ent In both cases the pa e charge f  
the impurity centers is str lized by the  
pa charge f the maj r ty c r r m

At a p n j i n the bar er that ke ps maj r ty  
car r s away co ts of dip le lay r f charged  
imp r ty to p i th typ ide nd  
g t on th p-type side When reve e bas  
ppl d the barr r he ght i c a es and qu re  
ba ge n the d p le j r t p du the re  
qu ed t p i l l age In r de t ach e th the  
l er m t wide since th red impurities  
are i fix d po it the cry tal As the lay r

de s, the c pa ita of the ju t i n d re s  
uce the p l t f the c pacit r are farther apa t  
The ef e ap j t on acts as a a able ap i  
ta es ell sa ari bl est nce S e V A R A C T O R

Junction diode characteristics Figure 2 h ws  
t p al ect if i at ion, swit h i g nd ap ta  
har te t i c a of a j u n c t i o n d e From the r t  
f i a t i o n c h a r a c t e r i s t i c (Fig 2a) it can b see  
th t a l n u n c t i w m c h i w s r e v r e l a k a g e  
c u r r e n t s a d h g h l t g e b e l d w n G e r m  
n m i s h w l w e f r w a r d b i a o l t a g d r o p s  
t p u r r t d e t y S l e n t c a b e  
o p a t e d 700 C t l e g r m m m n i s m t  
b e p a t e d b e l w 100 C

F t h i g p o e s t u r n - o n n d t m - o f f t u m e s  
are m i m p r i t a t (e e F g 2 b) The t r n - o n t m e  
f d o d e g r m d l y i t s j u c t c a p a c i t e  
a d a l l y q u i f t The t u n - o f f t m s u l l y  
th r t e l h i t c i s g e r n e d b y the t m  
r q u e d t r m o e l l f the e c e a s m t y c a r  
r e r s i n j e c t e d t o b o t h the a d p - r e g i d u r  
i g h t m e t h e d w s i n t h f o r w a r d b a t e  
Th e l i r d t h m o i y r r i e t a g e f l e c t  
d t i f the d e r f a f e w m r o s c o d f  
g o o d s w i t h g d d e s i n d o d e s a u a l l y  
s o m e w h t u p e t g e r m m u s i n t h  
p e e t F i r t h e d t o f t h p p e r t i c o f  
p a j o c

JUNCTION TRANSISTOR TRAN  
s i o n s a l P O I N T C O N T A C T D I O D E [ L P H U ]

## Junction transistor

A t r r h h t h e m i t t e r a d l l t b  
r e f r m d b e t w m n d c t o g o n s o f  
p o o r c o d u c t i v i t y t y p e T h s t y p i t a n t o r  
b y f t h e m t w d e l y u e d f u n t i n t s  
a 2 p o t c f m f e w m l l w a t t a ( m w )  
t a b o t 30 w i t t f f q y f o m 0.5-700  
m g y l s ( V ) d g n f m 10-50 d e c b e l s  
( d b ) G r m n m i s t h e m t w d e l y u e d m  
c d i m s t a l a l t h o g h s i n e d f o r  
h g h l t g r h g h t e m p a t m p p l c t i o In  
l j u c t i s n t o m p p l a b l e t a y  
l e c t r m p l f i a t i d t c t w i t h g  
p r o b l m n o t e q u i s g p r i n b o 200 C, 300  
m i t s r 00 M c. N o t a l l t h e l m t c n b a c h d  
i n e d i f o u r  
J o i n t r t o I f i e d b y t h n u m b e  
a d o d e r f t h e r g n f d f i e e t d t i t y

type by the method of fabricating the structure  
and met me ly t l e p r i n c i p l e o f p r a t n

Alloy junction transistors Also call l fu d  
junction tr n tor these re made i the p n p  
and p n f r m The emitter a d l l e c t r r g n s  
a e f r m e d l y r e c r y t a l l a t f m n d t r  
m a t e a l f r o m a n a l l y o f e m i c d u c t r m a t r i a l  
d i l v e d i n a m e s u t a l l m e t a l m i x t r e F r the  
g r m a n i u m p - n p a l l j u t i n t r a n s i t o r the  
m e t l s u a l l y i n d u m w i t h a s m a l l p e r c e n t a g e o f  
g a l l i m F t h m r m a n m p n l l j u t i n  
t a n i r t h e m t a l m a y l a m t u e s h a l e a d  
w i t h t m n y r l m e t h w t h a r n c T h e m j o r  
m t a l f e a c h f the a l l v ( i n d m l e d o r b i -  
m u t h ) e r s a t h e s o l t f g r m a n i u m T h e  
m r e l e m e n t s e r v e s a s a s c r e e f the i m p u r t y  
n e e d e d t o r d e r t h e s r y t a l l i z e d g r m a n m o p -  
p o t e i n n d t i s t y t y p t h r i g l w a t e r  
T h e p a l l y u n i t t h e m o r e c m m o n t y p e F o r a  
g e n l d e s r p t n a n d d e f i n i t n f t h e t e r m u e d  
h r e s e T R A N S I S T O R

Figure l c m p a r e s e v e r a l t n s t r p f i l e s  
w h i c h s h o w h w t h i m p u r t y c t v a r i e s t h g h  
t h e t r u c t e e n t h e s e p r t y c C i n t h e o c t r a  
t o n o f the p - t y p e i m p u r t y a n d C t h e c o n c e n  
t i o n o f the n t y p e i m p u r t y T h e n e t i m p u r t y  
c o n t e t d e t e r m i n e s t h e d u c t i v i t y t y p e a d m g  
n u t d ( s S e m i c o n d u c t o r ) T h e p r f i l e f t h e  
a l l y t r a n s i s t o r s h o w t h a t t h e r e i s n l p l  
c h g o f i m p u r t y c o n c e n t a t m t h e e m i t t e r a n d  
c o l l e c t j n e t i n s d t h a t t h e c o n d u c t i v i t y o f t h  
m i t t e r a d c o l l e c t g i t h f h i g h  
m p a r e d t t h a t f t h e b r g m S i c h a t r u  
t u h o w g o o d m u r i n j e c t e f f i y b u t  
n l y m o d r a t e c l l t l g r a t m a n d r e l  
t i e l y h g h l e t r c a p a c i t a n c

Grown junction transistors Th re mad i  
the p a p a d n p f r m w l l a s i n m e c m  
p l a t e d f r m T h e e r s l a r a t s f t h e  
g r w n j u n c t o n t e c h q u T h s i m p l e s t c a s e i f o f  
a e s i e l y a d d n g d i f f e r e n t t y p e s f i m p u r t y  
t h m e l t f r m w l c h t h s m e d u c t c r y s t a l s  
b n g g r o w n A s e m i c o n d t r c r y t a l i s a l l y  
g o w n b y d p p n g t h e e d f a s e e d c r y t a l i n t  
m l t n m c d c t r a d b v g g t h t h e r m )  
g a d n t t h t n e w e m i d t l d f e s o n  
t h d f t h e d e a s t s l w l w i t h d w n T h  
l d l q d t f c e a t g h l v p n p e r p d i  
l a r t t h a o f w i t h d r a w l A p n p t u c t e e n  
b e g r o w n b y t e t g w i t h p t y p e m l l b y d d  
g t n e p o n t n e c r y s t l g r o w t h n u g h  
t y p m p u r t y t g a e l g h t e c s e t h e  
p t y p m p r t y o r i g n l l y p e a n t a n d f r  
g w t h h a t a u e d f f w m c m b y a d d g

o f p - t y p e m p t y t o t h m l t h e l t  
g r w n g n w l l b t h m i t t e r m m n d t h  
g n a l p - t y p c r y s t l w l l b e t h e l l t o r g i  
T h m p r t y p f i l e f a c t a r c t r e s h o w n u  
F g l b T h h i g h c d u c t i v i t y m i t t e r r e g n g  
g d n e c t i n e f f i e a d t h e j u c t n b e  
t w t h e b a a d c o l l t e g n i g r a d l  
g h o t h t h e t w l l h w a l a t e l y l o w  
c l l c t c a p t a a d h u c h b e l a t e l y l o w



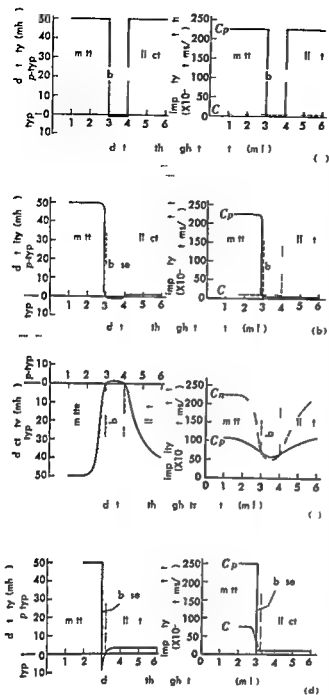


Fig 1 Conductivity and impurity profiles of typical junction transistors (a) p-n alloy junction transistor (b) p-p grown collector transistor (c) p-n te-grown junction transistor (d) p-p p-type alloy diffused junction transistor

age. The one disadvantage of this method is that both the collector and base regions show relatively high series resistances.

**Rate grown and remelt junction transistors** These are a subtle variation of the grown junction technique. If a melt contains more than one impurity, the proportion of each impurity picked up by an advancing solid interface will vary with the speed of advance. With the proper choice of  $n$  and  $p$  type impurities one can grow an  $n-p-n$  transistor structure in germanium, for example, by radically slowing down the pulling (withdrawal) rate for a short time. Sometimes the pulling is

actually reversed (hence the terms remelt or melt back). The impurity profile of such a structure is shown in Fig 1c. Grown junction techniques are more widely used in fabricating silicon transistors than germanium transistors.

**Diffused base drift transistor** In this transistor the minority carrier transport across the base region is achieved by the effect of a strong electric field built into the transistor structure by a fabrication technique called diffused base. In the typical alloy junction transistor (uniform base conductivity) the minority carrier transport across the base is achieved by a relatively slow diffusion process. In the drift transistor the base region shows a high conductivity gradient decreasing from the emitter to the collector (see Fig 1d). This conductivity gradient means that the majority carrier concentration is much greater near the emitter than near the collector. In order to cancel the natural diffusion of majority carriers from the high to the low concentration region, an electric field must exist of such a polarity as to tend to drive majority carriers back toward the emitter. This polarity of field then tends to drive minority carriers from the emitter to the collector. When normal bias is applied to the device, excess injected minority carriers will be accelerated across the base by this field.

The method of producing the conductivity gradient in the base is usually some sort of solid state impurity diffusion technique. One of the most useful is the formation of an alloy emitter region which contains both  $n$  and  $p$  type impurities. For germanium, the  $p$  type impurity is caused to be much in excess and gives a  $p$  type recrystallized emitter region. The  $n$  type impurity, however, has a much faster rate of diffusion and soon penetrates the original wafer beyond the recrystallization boundary. If the original wafer is  $p$  type with a relatively low conductivity, the  $n$  type impurity diffusing out of the recrystallized emitter region is in excess near the emitter, creating an  $n$  type base region with the required conductivity gradient. Such a technique as this is called by a variety of names: diffused base, post alloy diffusion, pushed out base, or simply diffused.

**Drift transistors** These show the highest frequency cutoff and the fastest switching times of any of the junction transistors. Typically they have good collector voltage ratings and low collector capacitance. Because of the graded nature of the collector junction, the emitters, however, can withstand only 4–5 volts of reverse bias and show a high capacitance which often limits the frequency response of the device.

**PNIP junction transistors** The emitters are intended for high frequency operation. They minimize base transit time by making the base unusually thin and they reduce collector capacitance by making the collector junction unusually thick. This is accomplished by inserting an intrinsic region ( $i$  region) between the base and collector regions. An  $i$  region is one in which the net number

of imp ties ( minu p ) ery low and hence the d ity ry low The frequency range f ch r r r i n t h g h that f d f t tran t r s, b t t h g h e r than that of alloy tran t r s. Both m and p p types exi t

Tetrode transistor Th t t h s t w h m u t c t s on opp site sides f the base r g n If the mitter is b e d w th rel t n t one of the e co t s a d th the base c t c t g d c b f the m p l y as the emitter b t of g r e r m g n t d e t i s p ble to limit the f w d b i a d e a f the emitter junctio t a m l l g o e a r t h f i r s t b n t a c t Since m i n t y c e r s g e s e t a l l y s t r a i g h t a t h b a s e t h l l e c t t h w l l a l l m t h e l m f t h e b t l e d t a r e g n c l o s e t h e f i s t b a s e t c t. Th l w r s the b a e e r e s i s t a n c e and th r e l e c t r a. the f r e q u e n c y r e s p f t t h d e v i c e Th p p r t n o f j e c t e d e r s l t t o t h b a s e h i l m t r n t t h l l e c t o r h w e r i s i n c r d Th l w e r t h c u r r t g a i o f t h d e v e

Power transistors The e e u d i n t h t p t t a g f a l e c t o c c u t b o t h s w i t c h e s d m p l i f i e ( C O N T R O L L E D R E C T I F I E R ) D e p e n d i n g o t h e l d. h i g h l i g r t u n g a h g h r r e t a t g h h p o w r a t g m y b e r e q u i r e d W h a y f i t h e b e t d p a t n w i t h t h d e s i s a r i l m i t t F g e 2 h w s t h r i t i o n f g r d e d e m i t t e - c u r r t g a w i t h e m i t t e r e f t i p c a l p - n p j t i o p o w r t r a n s i s t F m t h u r v e t a n b e s e t h i a h i g h r r e t t g s b t e d t r i o l o s f g a i n A c t l l y t h e T l t a t d d p n g i s a f u n c t i o n f e r r t d e t y s o t h a t t e c h l g l a m p m e n t s l l w i g l g e m i t t e r a n d D e c t e n t a s w l l g e t l y i m p r e t h e h g h c u r r t p r f r m U s u a l l y l g e e a e m i t t e r a n d l l e c t r t i s a t t e d d b y g e m e t c a l c o m p l t y p o o q u a l i t y j n t s r b o t h S l

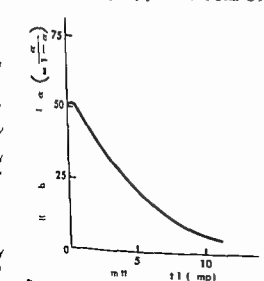


Fig 2 V w h m t t f m m r r t g ( l l y p w t t

c n o f f e g r e a t p o m e t t h e p o w e r t r a n i t r f i e l d b a u c e i t m e c a b l e o f h i g h e r t e m p e r a t u r e o p e r a t i o n a d c o n s i d e r a b l y h g h e r l t a g e r a t i n g T h e s e a d a t a g a e f l e t b y i t m o r d i f f i c u l t t e c h n o l o g y a d b y t h e r l a t l y l a r g e l t g e d r p o f s i l i c o n t a t m h i g h s a t u r a t i o n c u r r e n t

Summary The followi g o m p a r i n m a y b e m a d e f t h e d i f f e r e n t j u t n t r a n i t r t y p e s G e r m a n i u m a l l y t a n i t o r a r e u e d i n t h e a d o f r q u e n c y f i e l d a d t a l e s s e r e x t e i n t h e p o w e r f i e l d a d i n t h e m o d a t e - s p e e d s w i t c h i n g f i e l d T h e r e t f f e q u e n c y r a g e s f r o m 50 k c f o r m e o f t h e p w e r t y p e s t o M f o r s o m e f t h e s w i t c h i n g t y p e s P o w e r r t i n g m g e f r o m 100 m w t o 30 w a t t s a d o l t a g e r a t i n g s r e 0 - 150 v l t S i l i c o d i f f u s e d j u n c t i o n g r o w j u n c t i o n t y p e s l i w a p p e r a b l y h g h e r v o l t g e a d p o w e r r a t i n g ( 300 l t a n d 50 w a t t ) l u t h e l o w f r e q u e n c y a d c u r r e n t r a t i n g I n t h e h g h f r e q u e n c y f i e l d t h d r i f t t a n s i s t i s m t u e d G r m a u m d r i f t t r a n i t o r r a n g e p t 100 M i n f r e q u e n c y c u t o f f a n d h e a b o t 50 m w p w r a t g S i l i c o n d i f f t r a t r a n g p t o b o u t 00 M c i f f r e q u e n c y c u t o f f I g e n l m t a i l o n t n t o r w i l l o p e r a t e u p t 200 C, w h i l e g r m a u m t r a n i t o r m t b e k p t b l w 100 C [ L P H U ]

Bibl g a p h y L P H U t e r H a d b k o f S e m c d t E l e c t c s 1956

# Jupiter

The l a g e t p l a n e t i n t h e s o l a r s y s t e m a d t h e f i f t h t h e r d o f d i s t a n c e t o t h e S u n I t i s a b l e t o t h n a k e d y e x p t f o s h r t p e r o d w h e t i n e a i t s n j c t n w i t h t h e S U a l l y t i t h e c d b r i g h t p l a n e t i n t h e s k y O l v M s a t i t m a m m u m n o i t y a d v n p p b i g h t e r J u p t e r s h i g h t t h a S i t h e b r i g h t e s t f i x e d s t

Planet and its orbit The m i o r b i t a l l e m e m a r a m i m j a m m e a n d i s t a n c e t o S u n i s 485 x 10 m a n e c n t i c i t y o f 0048 c a u s i n g t h e d i s t a n c e t o t h S u n t o v a r y a b o t 47 x 10 m i b e t w e p e h i n d p h e l m d r e a l r e v l t i p i d f 1186 j m m r b i t l l c i t y o f 82 m / e a d l i t o f b t a l p l e t l p t e f l 3 S P L A N E T

The a p p a r e n t q u a n t i t y d m e t e r o f i t d k a e f m b t 47 t m e n o p p t ( 50' t p h e l c p p t 44 a t p h l p p i t i n ) t 32' t o j t The p l f t t e i g d m t o t p d o t t s n i d e a b l n d i l y d e t t d b y u l n p e c t o t h l i p t t y ( - ) / = 0065 w h e a t h e e q a t o i l d s d i s t h p l r r a d Th e q u o r i d i m t b t 88 00 m a d t h p o l a d m e t e r 82800 m i The l m m b t 1317 ( E a t h = 1 ) w i t h n e c t y f f e w p c t The m a b t 3184 ( E r t h = 1 ) a d s a c u t l y d t e m d f m t h e m t f t h f r m j t l l t The m d e t y 134 g / m a l w l e m t t i o f t h f m j p l t s t h r e p d g a l u f t h e m e a n l r t i f g r t y

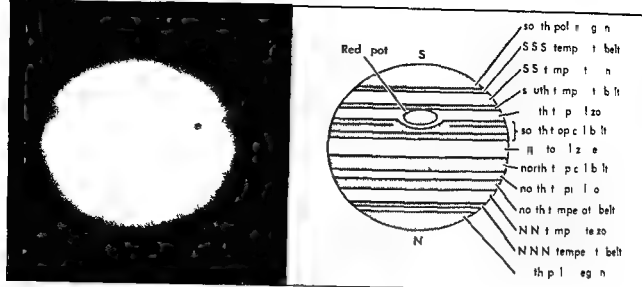


Fig 1 Telescopic appearance of Jupiter and nomenclature of principal bands

at the visible surface is about  $26 \text{ m/sec}^2$  however because of the rapid rotation the centrifugal force at the equator amounts to  $2.25 \text{ m/sec}^2$  reducing the effective acceleration of gravity to about  $24 \text{ m/sec}^2$

**Phases** As an exterior planet Jupiter shows only gibbous phases however because of the large size of the orbit compared to that of Earth the maximum phase angle is only  $12^\circ$  at quadratures and the phase effect shows up only as a slightly increased darkening of the edge at the terminator. The apparent visual magnitude at mean opposition is  $-2.4$  and the corresponding value of the reflectivity (geometrical albedo) is about  $0.4$  the physical albedo is  $0.45$  with some uncertainty due to the small range of phase angle observable. The high value of the albedo characteristic of the four major planets indicates the presence of a dense cloud laden atmosphere. See ALBEDO

**Telescopic appearance:** Through an optical telescope Jupiter appears as an elliptical disk strongly darkened near the limb and crossed by a series of bands parallel to the equator (Fig 1). Even fairly small telescopes show a great deal of complex structure in the bands and disclose the rapid movement of rotation of the planet. The period of rotation determined from long series of observations of the bands at the central meridian is very short about  $9\text{h}55\text{m}$  the shortest of the main planets. The details observed however do not correspond to the solid body of the planet but to clouds in its atmosphere and the rotation period varies markedly with latitude. The nomenclature and mean rotation periods of the main belts of clouds are given in Table 1. The rotation period of any given zone is not exactly constant but suffers continual fluctuations about a mean value  $Q$ .

Table 1 Mean latitudes and rotation periods of Jupiter's bands (after B. M. Peek)

Band	Region	Latitude	Period 9h+	Remarks
North polar region		$> +18$	55m1	
NNN temperate belt	Center	$+13$	55m20	Temporary
NN temperate belt	Center	$+38$	55m1 s	Temporary
	South edge	$+35$	53m55s	
North temperate belt	North edge	$+31$	56m0 s	
	Center	$+27$	53m1 s	
	South edge	$+3$	19m0 s	
North tropical zone	Center	$+18$	55 n 9	
North tropical belt	Center	$+13$	55m09s	Temporary
	South edge	$+6$	0 1	
Equatorial zone	Middle	0	50m 1s	
South tropical belt	North edge	$-6$	50 n 7	
	Center	$-10$	51 n 1s	
	South edge	$-19$	5 m39	
South tropical zone	Center	$-23$	55 n36	
Great Red Spot	Center	—	138s	
South temperate belt	North edge	—	3m0	Temporary
	Center	$-9$	n 0	
	South edge	$-31$	m0	
SS temperate zone	Center	$-38$	5 m0 s	
SSS temperate zone	Center	$-4$	5 m30s	Temporary
South polar region		$< -4$	30s	

astion 1 sh = li ed atmo phe ic phenom en may  
depart more strongly from the m a = tatio  
of the zone : h h they appear and thus drift  
p dl w th respect to othe det als : the zone  
The ot to n axi = l ned only 3 to the p rpen  
d ic lar to the rbtal pl = so that seaso al ef  
fect a p act ally neglig ble

Red Spot Apr 17 m the e n t a l l y cha ging  
detals of the belts me p rmanent r emperma  
ent mak gs h e b en observed t la t fo de  
des o even ce tures w th s me fl ctuation in  
l b l y Th most con picuo s d e p emanent  
marking is th g eat Red Spot intermittently re  
corded su e th middle of the e tee th cent ry  
and observed con uo ly s 1818 whe t r  
traking redd h e lo ttracted g neral att nti n  
lt co p c s nd s ingleton colored ag n t  
18 9-188 1893-1894 1903 1907 1911 1914  
1919-1990 1926-1927 a d espec lly 1936-1937  
t oth times it h s bee faint and only slightly  
col ed a doc on lly nly its sh ne or th t of  
the bright bay s hollow of the th temp r  
e zone wh ch urr ds t h s r maned va ble  
(see Fig 2)

The mean period of the Red Spot between 1831 and 1955 was 9h55m37.5 s with a range of duration of about  $\pm 6$  sec. The mean duration of the Red Spot are about 30 000 miles in longitude and 10 000 miles in latitude.

Other marks are the remark bl miper  
mane t m rka g the South Tr pial D tu ban e  
as interm tly berved n Jupt r between  
1901 and 1935 and p s bly al o 1940 Th s mark  
ing e re l ted in th s me one s the Red Sp t.  
b t with ab rter m n rotation period bo t  
9h55m16s a d p riod c lly ame int n) et n  
with t. A large number f temp ary feat es of  
b rier d r t n ha n be n obs rv d but th r  
mech nisms of f r m t and l w of m t ns re  
tunde stood

The location of the stable surface of  
 Jupiter recorded in the longitude system O  
 003 a d f r a p t n t h e q u a r t e r  
 her system l l b e d a r t i p o d f  
 945 m 40 632 s u e d f o p t o u s d t h  
 u b l d t e s i l y q a l t h m e a p d  
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 h a f t e a m s i l y l n g t m e x e d o n e  
 m m p l e t u r n s t h a x e e d 360  
 T h d f t l l g t u d o f t h R e d S p t w i t h p e  
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 h n F g 3

Atmosphere Th p t c l p t m f J p t r  
 b e d by tr b o r p t n b d s f m e t h  
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 t e s f t h e p t t h t m p h e  
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 i n t h r t h e s a t t d r d t m p r t a n d p e s  
 ( S T P ) d 7 m S T P r p t c l y T h r t l  
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 l o b e p e e t d r e c t b r v t s o f t h u l t

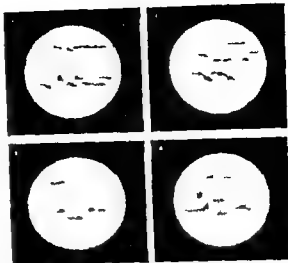


Fig 2 V bl bility f the R d Sp t (1) 1929  
(2) 1933 (3) 1936 (4) 1938

tion of a star by Jupiter has confirmed the  
cl

The radiometrically determined temperature of the visible surface of Jupiter about 130 K is in fairly good agreement with the value theoretically estimated from the assumption that the visible cloud layer is mainly a crystal of solidified ammonia (about 160 K).

The elements of the clouds of Jupiter have been attributed to the presence of various metallic compounds such as sodium, potassium in the atmosphere.

**Internal structure** Various theoretical models of the internal structure of Jupiter calculated after 1930 had suggested the following constitution: a relatively small, rocky core surrounded by a thick mantle of several varieties of water and other ice under very high pressures and at very low temperature and above this an extensive liquid and gaseous atmosphere whose uppermost layer is a visible hydrogen cloud. In 1954 the model proposed by Jupiter's trojan planets on thermal radiation at wavelengths less than 15 microns led to the conclusion that the density of the possible presence of hot dense gases under the surface is a model.

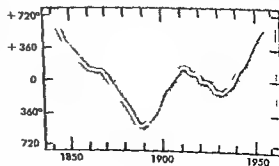


Fig 3 D ft l g t d of th R d Sp i b tw  
1840 d 1955 (Aft B M P k)

ate depth below the optically impenetrable cloud cover. The recurrence of radio emission in certain longitudes indicates the existence of sources of energy rotating with a constant period of 9h55m29.6s and suggests the presence under the clouds of a solid surface rotating with this period. See RADIO ASTRONOMY.

The existence of an inner solid body at a high temperature appears to be confirmed by measurements of the thermal radio emission of Jupiter at wavelengths shorter than 10 cm which indicate radiation temperatures of the order of 600 K. Earlier theoretical models of the internal structure of Jupiter are in need of considerable revision as a result of these discoveries.

**Satellites.** Jupiter has 12 known satellites of which the first 4 I, II, Europa, III, Ganymede, IV, Callisto, discovered by Galileo in 1610, are by far the most important. The main elements of the 12 satellites are given in Table 2.

The four Galilean satellites are of fifth and sixth stellar magnitude and would be visible to the naked eye if they were not so close to the much brighter parent planet. All the others are faint telescopic objects. The fifth satellite discovered visually by E. E. Barnard in 1892 moves inside the orbit of Io; the others move in much larger orbits outside that of Callisto and have been discovered photographically since 1900.

The masses of the major satellites can be roughly estimated from their mutual perturbations in terms of the mass of the Moon as a unit: the mass of III is about 2, of I about 1, of IV about  $\frac{1}{2}$ , and of II about  $\frac{1}{4}$ . The four Galilean satellites show measurable disks easily seen with telescopes of 6 to 8 in. aperture. Larger telescopes show distinct markings on the disks (Fig. 4). The apparent diameters are of the order of 1-2" and the corresponding linear diameters are listed in Table 2. Ganymede and Callisto are larger than Mercury but smaller than Mars; their densities, about 2.5-3 g/cm<sup>3</sup>, are approximately the same as the density of the Moon and of the Earth's crust. Observations of their surface markings and the regular variations of brightness as they move along their orbits indicate that the four major satellites (and

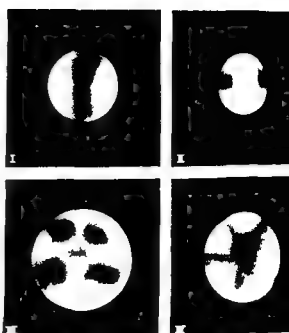


Fig. 4. Telescopic aspects of the Galilean satellites.



Fig. 5. Satellite phenomena.

probably also V) always present the same face to Jupiter, much as the Moon does to the Earth. This is because their periods of rotation are equal to their periods of revolution. The albedos for I, II, and III are relatively high, however IV is very dark and has an albedo smaller than that of the Moon.

The planes of the orbits of the major satellites of Jupiter are inclined less than 0.5° to the equatorial plane of Jupiter, so that with the occasional exception of IV they are eclipsed in Jupiter's shadow at each revolution and also project their shadows on Jupiter and transit in front of its disk near conjunction. The eclipses, transits, and occultations

Table 2. Satellites of Jupiter.

Satellite	Mean distance from Jupiter, 10 miles	Semi-major axis, 10 <sup>6</sup> miles	Diameter, miles	Mean magnitude	Albedo (0.1)	M (Moon = 1)
I Io	6	1.769	300	(1)	0.3	1.0
II Europa	117	3.51	190	5 (1)	0.3	0.6
III Ganymede	666	155	300	1 (1)	0.0	1
IV Callisto	1110	16 (8)	300	6.3 (1)	0.03	
V	113	0.198	10	13.0 (vi)		
VI	710	0.6	100	13 (1)		
VII	90	0.9	3	17.0 (1)		
VIII	11600	3	3	1.0 (1)		
IX	1100	8	1	18.0 (1)		
X	300	10	1	18.8 (1)		
XI	11000	00	19	18.1 (1)		
XII	13000	6	14	18.3 (1)		

[c p v ]

## Jurassic

Th 1 m f rock d po sed d ring the middle  
p r t f the Mesozo c Era. The Jura y tem  
rm ll u de l n by the Tra u d o c l a s by  
ll Cretaceo ystem It w named af r the  
J m l a n S t l d d s may l  
f d m e t r y o c k v l n i c o c k s a r e r e s t e d  
t r t n r e g n p r t l r l y the N r t h A m e r i c  
C o d l l a T h d a t n o f the J c P r d  
b h d d b o t 127 000 000 y e s a g e s t i  
m b t e d b e a p o t 25 000 000 y

A		EO	OIC	AM
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(LATE P		ECAM	AM	
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ORDOVICIAN				
SILURIAN				
DEVONIAN				
MU		1	IPPL	
P		YI		
PERMIAN				
TRIASSIC				
JURASSIC				
CRETACEOUS				
TERTIARY				
QUATERNARY				

Subdivision Th Ju e sy tem co st f  
the ma d m th Low Mddl nd Uppe  
J L u, D gg r and M lm Bla k B wn  
d Wh t J th term appl d these  
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d th Call : O f d k mm dg n P t  
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J o th t g m ha e b e tr d d f  
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t ges gr p m l e wh h b ed  
ra pec es f m m t ( d Amm n d  
f Cephal pod ) ha t t of t bed d  
t m ny se f n l d w d e d t but S  
Ct HALO DA F S ILS

The northern European standard section is now  
based on the 58 mm nitel zone. Local faunal  
differences in the ha resulted in separate zones  
which are defined in different regions and some of these may be  
based on fossil rather than ammonite criteria. The sample  
the pelecypod Buchin (Auc II) in the Up-  
per Jurassic. See PELECYPODA FOSSILS

Other subdivisions of the system are formations mainly defined by lithology which form the basis of geologic mapping. In North America formation names are extensively used. In Great Britain formation names such as Lias, Liassic, Oolite, Cornbrash, Oxford Clay and others are used and some of the creek units traceable to other countries. The same name has been applied. The age of formation name for mapping has great advantage. However, worldwide correlation are based on stage and zone.

[illegible]

for filling them. In spite of their rapid sinking the depths of these geosynclinal seas were not (with some exceptions) considerably greater than those of the more stable areas as the speed of sinking was compensated by rapid filling. Typical shallow water deposits are common in such geosynclinal seas. See GEOSYNCLINE.

The Precambrian shields which form the oldest and most stable parts of the earth's crust were land areas subject to erosion during the Jurassic Period. Thus in North America the Canadian Shield was land bordered by seas both to the north and west and the Scandinavian Shield was surrounded by seas in Late Jurassic times (Fig. 1). Smaller areas underlain by older rocks such as the Bohemian Mass, the French Central Plateau, the Belgian Ardennes and the German Hartz Mountains were lands the coastlines of which are indicated in many places by conglomerates and sandstones (Fig. 2). See PRECAMBRIAN.

The faunas of the Early Jurassic particularly the ammonites seem to have been universal and distinct faunal realms can scarcely be recognized for this time. During the early part of the Middle Jurassic (middle Bajocian) a Pacific province seems to be indicated and somewhat later in the Jurassic (possibly Callovian) a boreal realm is developed in the Arctic and parts of Russia. Its ammonite faunas are clearly distinguished from those of the realm of the Tethys. These faunistic differences do not necessarily indicate any differentiation of climate which apparently was very uniform

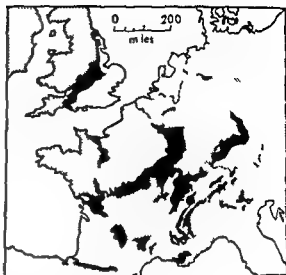


Fig. 2 Distribution of Jurassic outcrops in west-central Europe. (From R. C. M. Ore Introduction to Historical Geology, 2d ed. McGraw-Hill, 1958)

as indicated by the fossil vegetation. Jurassic glaciations are unknown.

**Tectonic history.** The Jurassic Period was for most parts of the world a time of comparative tectonic passivity. Diastrophism of a major order and connected with the intrusion of batholiths was restricted to the North American Cordillera.

Mountain building connected with volcanic activity took place in the Crimea and Caucasus and minor folding and faulting (the so-called Germano type folding) is known from northwestern Germany and other areas. In the North American Cordillera two major episodes of diastrophism are recognized: the Agassiz and the Nevadan phases. The Agassiz phase took place at the boundary between the Middle and Late Jurassic; the Nevadan orogeny at the end of the Jurassic Period. While the Agassiz phase seems to be restricted to parts of southern British Columbia, the Nevadan phase resulted in the uplift of great parts of the former Cordilleran geosyncline. This new land was consequently subjected to erosion and the eroded material was deposited in the east where it contributed to the sediments of the Lower Cretaceous. Intrusion of large batholiths in the North American Cordillera and widespread of volcanic activity were not restricted to these two episodes of tectonic diastrophism but took place also during part of the Early and particularly Middle Jurassic. Germano type folding affected many parts of the world within belts of earlier folding which had not yet become entirely stable. Orogenic movements of this type occurred during the Late Triassic and perhaps earliest Jurassic (early Cimmerian phase). The late Cimmerian phase of many regions is about equivalent to the Nevadan orogeny and is subdivided into the Deister phase between the Kimmeridgian and lower Portlandian and the Oterwald phase between the lower and upper Portlandian. See BATHOLITH.

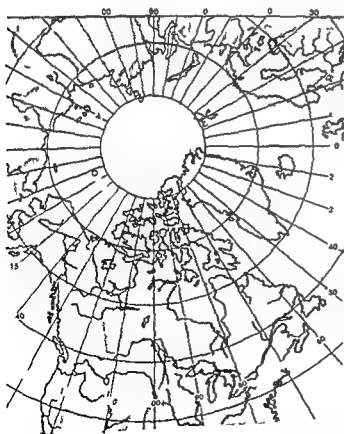


Fig. 1 Paleogeography of the Boreal region.







Fig 1 Jute *Corchorus capsularis* (From P DeJavill Atlas de Poche des Plantes Utiles des Pays Chauds Librairie des Sciences Natelles 1902)

**Diseases of jute** A number of diseases of jute cause losses in yield and reduce fiber quality. Runner and specky fiber are primarily due to disease producing organisms.

The fungus *Macrophomina phaseoli* is believed to cause the most serious disease of the two species of jute. It is seed borne and soil borne and pycnidiospores from susceptible plants besides jute also serve as sources of infection. The stem, leaves and roots of both young and older plants are subject to attack. Stem infection usually takes place through a leaf petiole or at a node (Fig 2). Root rot is complicated in that severity is increased when *M phaseoli* is in combination with other fungi, bacteria or nematodes such as *Fusarium solani*, *Pseudomonas* sp. and *Meloidogyne incognita* respectively.



Fig 2 (a) Disease lesions on jute stems (b) Roots of jute plant affected by root knot nematodes. Dark area on roots are early stages of root decay.

See BACTERIA FUNGI NEMATODA see also LEAF (BOTANY) ROOT (BOTANY) SEED (BOTANY) STEM (BOTANY)

In contrast to *M phaseoli*, *Colletotrichum capsulae* causes lesions on the stem internodes and may also attack seedlings and capsules of *C capsularis*. See FRUIT (BOTANY). *Macrophoma corchori* and *Diplodia corchori* cause stem diseases. Two species of bacteria *Xanthomonas makatae* and *X makatae* var *olitoris* attack the stem and leaves of both *C capsularis* and *C olitorius*. *Pythium splendens* causes a root rot and subsequent wilt of *C capsularis* and indications are that other species of *Pythium* also are root pathogens of jute.

Other fungi which attack jute are *Sclerotium rolfsii*, *Curvularia subulata*, *Cercospora corchori*, *Rhizoctonia solani*, *Helminthosporium* sp. and *Alternaria* sp.

Seed treatment with an organomercuric material such as Ceresan, Granosan or Agrosan GN should be practiced for control of seed borne pathogen and seedling diseases. Stem rot may be prevented by spraying with bordeaux or a colloidal copper compound. The excessive use of nitrogenous fertilizers increases the incidence of stem diseases. Root rot control requires the use of crop rotation and in some areas the use of recently developed varieties of *C capsularis* which are more tolerant to certain root rot pathogens than *C olitorius*. See AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE (PLANT) PLANT DISEASE.

[T 44]

# K

Kale—Kjante

## Kale

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## Kaliophilite

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## Kalsilite

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## Kame

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Kam i W Th m ll oc ot d d p ss m l t d b of p d g (USGS ph t)

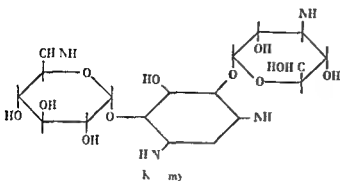
Th term l l me ha been ued l o ly and ap plied t hills ca d by stream ro t n of o rwa h to p tted utwash or t l l d lta M ul kam e t k ng onical gr el fill ngs of l l e m l ied th gh i g n i e S GLACIATED TERRANE [F T T]

## Kanamycin

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Ch m i l t d e f k n a m y h m h o w n t t be ate l h l tabl ba ant b t m

posed of three moieties. These are 2 deoxystreptamine (a component of neomycin) 3 glucosamine and 6 glucosamine. The latter two components are glycosidically attached to the deoxystreptamine and represent compounds not previously found in natural products.



The antibiotic has bactericidal activity for a wide variety of gram positive gram negative and acid fast bacteria. Its antimicrobial spectrum is similar to that of neomycin (see NEOMYCIN). Organisms resistant to neomycin are also resistant to kanamycin and vice versa. Resistance to kanamycin develops slowly in stepwise fashion except for the mycobacteria which develop resistance rapidly.

Kanamycin is far less toxic than neomycin both acutely and chronically when given by parenteral route (injected into the body). High dosages given for prolonged times to experimental animals can cause kidney vestibular and auditory damage. Intramuscular injections result in high blood levels in one to two hours. Kanamycin is also detectable in the cerebrospinal fluid. When given orally the low blood levels obtained indicate that the antibiotic is poorly absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract.

Clinical responses have been obtained with a variety of infections. Staphylococcal infections accompanied by bacteremia (bacteria growing in the blood) have responded as have some urinary tract infections caused by a variety of organisms including *Proteus*. Treatment of urinary infections due to *Pseudomonas* has not been as successful. Early studies on chronic tuberculosis indicate usefulness when the organism is resistant to streptomycin and isonicotinic acid hydrazide. *Salmonella* and shigella infections have also been treated successfully. Kanamycin has been used satisfactorily for preoperative bowel sterilization by oral administration.

Decreased auditory acuity (hearing) in the high frequency range has been demonstrated usually only by audiometric measurement. Only a small proportion of patients had subjective and only rarely did complete deafness occur. Decrease in renal function has occurred rarely and was observed to return to normal after stopping treatment. [J L.]

## Kangaroo

Any of several species of Australian marsupial mammal of the family Macropodidae. The same family includes the tree kangaroo and the kangaroo.

roos and wallabies. Kangaroos are usually large weighing as much as 200 lb and are typically animals of the open country a habitat in which their jumping method of locomotion is frequently developed. They have long powerful hind legs, and long muscular tails. Their front legs are short and are used for locomotion only when moving about slowly as they graze. They feed and travel in pairs in family groups or in large bands.



Kangaroo a marsupial

Kangaroos formerly were important as an item of diet in Australia but they have been so severely depleted for their hides which make good leather that they are no longer significant as food animal. They compete with domestic stock for the forage on grazing lands and are given little or no protection. See MARSUPIALIA [JDB]

## Kaolinite

The principal mineral of the kaolinite group of clay minerals. Kaolinite is composed of a single silica tetrahedral sheet and a single alumina octahedral sheet. These two units are combined so that a common layer is formed by the tips of the silica tetrahedrons and one layer of the octahedral sheet (Fig 1). See CLAY MINERALS.

Kaolinite is of fundamental importance in the ceramics industry because of its excellent firing properties and refractoriness. It is also used extensively as a filler in rubber products and for coating and filling paper products. See CERAMIC TECHNOLOGY.

**Structure** In the common structural layer 1 of the atom become O instead of OH because they are shared by the silica and aluminum. The aluminum atoms which are present occupy only two-thirds of the possible positions in the octahedral sheet and are hexagonally distributed in a single plane in the center of the sheet. All charge within the structural unit are balanced and the formula for kaolinite is  $(OH)_2Si_2Al_2O_5$ . Any replacement within the lattice are of very small magnitude.

The sheet unit of the kaolinite mineral are continuous in both the a and b crystallographic directions.

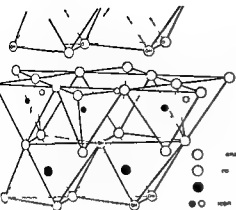


Fig 1 Diagram of the crystal structure of kaolinite. The diagram shows the arrangement of atoms (O, Si, Al) in the tetrahedral and octahedral layers. The legend indicates: O (open circle), Si (filled circle), Al (open circle with a dot).

They are stacked one above the other in the direct with superposition of OH planes. The units are held firmly together by hydrogen bonding. All kaolinites have the same order of crystallinity. Poorly crystallized kaolinite is ordered in the same way as the well-crystallized material. The poorly crystalline varieties have a slightly higher first order spacing than the well-crystallized material. Kaolinite is usually referred to as a 7-Ångström clay mineral because of its first order spacing. This approximates the distance between the octahedral and tetrahedral layers. The unit cell of kaolinite is made up of two kaolinite layers. The net unit cell is composed of two layers.



Fig 2 Electron micrograph of kaolinite. The micrograph shows the characteristic six-sided flakes and their arrangement. The scale bar indicates 2 μm.

**Morphology** Electron micrographs of well crystallized kaolinite show well formed six-sided flakes frequently with an elongation in one direction (Fig 2). Particles with the distinct six-sided flake have been observed in poorly crystallized kaolinite. The latter have ragged and irregular edges and a very crude hexagonal outline. In general, poorly crystallized kaolinite occurs in smaller particles than the well-crystallized mineral.

Dike particles are very well formed and have a distinct hexagonal outline. They differ from kaolinite in that they are much larger and can sometimes be studied with a light microscope.

Natural particles are somewhat irregular rounded flake-shaped units. Some of them show a hexagonal outline.

**Properties** The mineral kaolinite has a low cation exchange capacity (5-15 milliequivalents per 100 g m). Broken bonds around the edges of the local minima are the major cause of this exchange capacity. Anionic exchange capacity is also low except when tetrahedral hydroxyl groups are replaced or the anion is adsorbed because of its epitaxial fit. The rate of the exchange reaction is very rapid. The exchange capacity increases as the particle size decreases.

Kaolinite contains no interlayer water between the tetrahedral layer. It does, however, have the ability to adsorb water and develop plasticity. This water has a definite configuration and is referred to as "bound" water.

When kaolinites are heated they begin to lose their OH structural water at about 400°C with the dehydration being complete at 550-600°C. The process is irreversible for the loss of this OH water. The loss of kaolinite to kaolinite and may be explained by variation in particle size and crystallinity. The loss of OH water in poorly crystallized kaolinite is accompanied by a fairly complete loss of structure but in well-crystallized kaolinite some structural mass persists until subjected to higher temperatures.

A sharp exothermic reaction occurs at 950°C in poorly crystallized kaolinite. The explanation for the exothermic reaction has been attributed to the formation of Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> by some workers and to the nucleation of mullite by the Recer and coworkers. The latter explanation is more plausible.

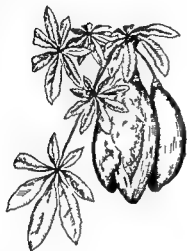
**Formation** The kaolinite type forms directly from the condensation of silicic acid and is formed under hydrothermal conditions. It is formed in the presence of aluminum, silicon, and hydrogen. The kaolinite may form from the hydrolysis of the alkalis and alkali earths. The formation of kaolinite is a function of the temperature and the pressure. It is a primary mineral in the Earth's crust. The kaolinite is formed from the feldspar and the quartz.

The petrographic examination of the kaolinite shows that it is formed from the feldspar and the quartz. The kaolinite is formed from the feldspar and the quartz. The kaolinite is formed from the feldspar and the quartz.

in the ea It is also indicative of relatively rapid accumulation of material See CLAY COMMERCIAL [FMW REGR]

## Kapok tree

The kapok or silk cotton tree *Ceiba pentandra* is a member of the bombax family (Bombacaceae). The tree has a bizarre growth habit and produces pods containing seeds covered with silky hairs called silk cotton. It occurs in the American trop



Pods and leaves of kapok tree (*Ceiba pentandra*) (From E. L. Paine, *Feldbook of Natural History* McGraw Hill 1949)

ics Java Philippine Islands and Ceylon. The silk cotton is the commercial kapok used for stuffing cushions, mattresses and pillows. Kapok has a very low specific gravity and is impervious to water; consequently it is excellent material for filling life preservers and other similar equipment. See MALAYALAS [PDS]

## Karman vortex street

A double row of line vortices in a fluid. Under certain conditions a Karman vortex street is shed in the wake of bluff cylindrical bodies when the relative fluid velocity is perpendicular to the generators of the cylinder as illustrated. This periodic shedding of eddies occurs first from one side of the body and then from the other, an unusual phenomenon because the oncoming flow may be perfectly steady. Vortex streets can often be seen for example in rivers downstream of the columns supporting a bridge. The street have been studied most completely for circular cylinders at low subsonic flow speeds. Regular perfectly periodic eddy shed



Karman vortex street

ding occurs in the range of Reynolds numbers  $Re$  based on cylinder diameter from 50-300. Above  $Re$  of 300, a degree of randomness begins to occur in the shedding and becomes progressively greater as  $Re$  increases until finally the wake is completely turbulent. The highest  $Re$  at which some light periodicity is still present in the turbulent wake is about  $10^5$ .

Vortex streets can be created by steady wind blowing past smoke stacks, transmission line bridges, masts about to be launched vertically, and pipe lines above ground in the desert. The streets give rise to oscillating lateral forces on the shedding body. If the vortex shedding frequency is near a natural vibration frequency of the body, the resonant response may cause structural damage. The Aeolian tones or singing of wires in a wind are an example of a forced oscillation due to a vortex street. T. von Karman showed that an idealized infinitely long vortex street is stable to small disturbances if the spacing of the vortices is such that  $h/a = 0.281$ , actual spacing are close to this value. A complete and satisfying explanation of the formation of vortex streets has, however, not yet been given. For  $10 < Re < 10^5$ , the shedding frequency  $f$  for a circular cylinder in low subsonic speed flow is given closely by  $fd/U = 0.21$ , where  $d$  is the cylinder diameter and  $U$  is stream speed.  $h/a$  is approximately 1.7. A. Roshko discovered a spanwise periodicity of vortex shedding on a circular cylinder. At  $Re = 80$  of about 18 diameters, thus it appears that the line vortices are not quite parallel to the cylinder axis. See FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES. VORTEX [AEBR]

**Bibliography** A. Roshko, On the wake and flow of bluff bodies, *J. Aeronaut. Sci.* 22(2) 121-135, 1955.

## Karst topography

Characteristic indications of minor third-order destructively developed land features resulting from subaerial and underground solution of lime tone under conditions of humid climate. The pattern features are progressively carved into second-order structural form, such as plain, plateau, or even hilly and mountainous upland containing lime tone layers at or near the surface. Virtually all lime tone formations are products of biological or chemical precipitation of calcium carbonate  $CaCO_3$  from aqueous solution. They are therefore susceptible to varying degrees of resolution in surface and ground waters, particularly when such waters are charged with carbon dioxide  $CO_2$  from vegetative sources or when the waters are under pressure. See LIMESTONE.

Factors of elimination of the factors in limestones produce a landscape unlike those resulting from other agents of land sculpture. Where a karst topography has developed, most surface water disappears quickly by entering sinkholes and other entrance ways into underground passages, and caverns that are enlarging because of the

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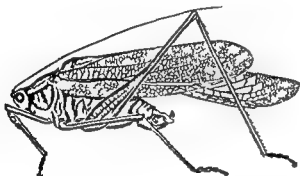
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 t g s f l a n d f m d e l p m n t e i d e t f a b l e  
 i a s k r t f d f f g g e

Not w t h y k r t g a r e l t l y u o m  
 m n a p t e f t e v l m e s t e r i s t h  
 l d a f i t h e t h e b s t h o w n g s i n E r p e  
 e t h k r s t a m f y u g o l i t h C a s e r e  
 g n f F d a C e e a d A n d a l s a  
 N t h A m r c n e m p l e a r f n d n t h e r n  
 y u t n n n t l F l r d a t h e A p p a l c h n  
 G e t V a l l y T e s e d v g r i i u t h  
 r n I n d d w t c e t a l k e t u c k y J  
 m a a P r t o R c n d C b a l o h e w e l l d  
 l p e d k t S C A V E G E O M O R P H O L O G Y  
 G R O U D W T E R W E A T H R C R O C E S S E S [ J H B ]  
 B b l g p h y A H D e r r a n d D R H o y  
 A s t l d p o f C u b P r t R a d J a  
 m T h S c i t f M t h y O t l 19 7 v l 85  
 n 4 W D T h n b y P r i c p l e o f G m p h l  
 s y 19 4 O D o n E g l n G m p h o l o g y 1942

## Katydid

Any of several bright green long winged grasshoppers of the family Tettigonidae order Orthoptera. The katydids occur throughout the Northern Hemisphere. They are mainly herbivorous although there are a few carnivorous species. Katydids are rarely of any economic importance although occasionally they may defoliate trees.

The long antennae longer than the body are characteristic of the katydids and others of this family in contrast to the short antennae of the true locusts of the family Acrididae.



The forked tailed bush katydid *Scuddia furcata* is 1 1/2 to 2 in. (F. M. E. L. Palmer, Fieldbook of Natural History, McGraw Hill 1949).

In temperate climates katydids overwinter in the egg. Eggs are usually deposited on twigs under bark or by splitting the edge of a leaf and placing the eggs in the slit. See GRASSHOPPER, ORTHOPTERA [JDB]

## Kelvin bridge

A specialized version of the Wheatstone bridge network designed to eliminate or greatly reduce the effect of lead and contact resistance and thus permit accurate measurement of low resistance. The circuit shown in the figure accomplishes this by effectively placing relatively high resistance ratio arms in series with the potential leads and contacts of the low resistance standards and the unknown resistance. In this circuit  $R_A$  and  $R_B$  are the main ratio resistors,  $R$  and  $R_0$  the auxiliary ratio, the unknown  $R$  the standard and  $R$  a heavy copper yoke of low resistance connected between the unknown and standard resistors.

By applying a delta wye transformation to the network consisting of  $R$ ,  $R_0$ , and  $R$  the equivalent Wheatstone bridge network shown in the illustration is obtained where

$$R = \frac{R R_0}{R + R + R_0}$$

$$R = \frac{R R_0}{R + R + R_0}$$

$$R = \frac{R R_0}{R + R + R_0}$$

By an analysis similar to that for the Wheatstone bridge it can be shown that for a balanced bridge

$$R = \frac{R_B}{R_A} R + R \left( \frac{R_0}{R + R_0 + R} \right) \left( \frac{R_B}{R_A} - \frac{R_0}{R} \right) \quad (1)$$

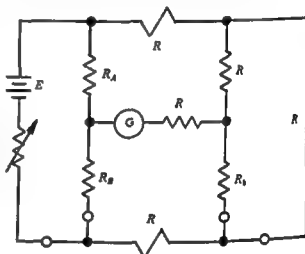
$$\text{If } \frac{R_B}{R_A} = \frac{R_0}{R} \quad (2)$$

the second term of Eq. (1) is zero the measurement is independent of  $R_0$  and

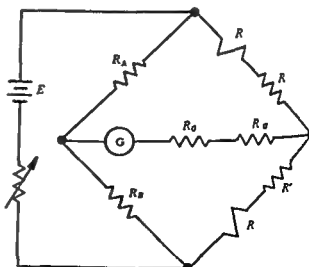
$$R = \frac{R_B}{R_A} R \quad (3)$$

As with the Wheatstone bridge the Kelvin bridge for routine engineering measurements is constructed using both adjustable ratio arms and adjustable standards. However the ratio is usually continuously adjustable over a short span and the standard is adjustable in appropriate steps to cover the required range. See WHEATSTONE BRIDGE.

**Sensitivity** The Kelvin bridge sensitivity can be calculated similarly to the Wheatstone bridge. The



(a)



(b)

Kelvin bridge (a) Actual circuit (b) Equivalent Wheatstone bridge circuit

open-circuit, balance voltage appearing in the  
 detect terminals may be expressed to a first  
 degree approximation as

$$e = E \frac{1}{(1 + \frac{R_0}{R})} \left[ \frac{\Delta R}{R + R \left( \frac{1}{1 + \frac{R_0}{R}} \right)} \right] \quad (4)$$

The unbalance detect current for closed de-  
 tect circuit may be expressed approximately as

$$I_0 = \frac{E \left( \frac{\Delta R}{R} \right)}{\frac{R_0}{(1 + \frac{R_0}{R})} + R_A + R_B + R + R_0} \quad (5)$$

The balance bridge requires power supply pa-  
 rameters of the order of magnitude of the  
 total power being measured. The total  
 power applied to the bridge is usually limited by  
 the power dissipation capabilities of the standard  
 and component resistors.

Errors in bridge resistance measurement  
 are caused by the measurement of the  
 Wheatstone bridge. However, the measurement of  
 error implied by the second term of Eq. (1)  
 must be evaluated. The effect of the well-known  
 resistance of the bridge arms on the measurement  
 of the resistance of the bridge arms is well known  
 and is usually neglected. The effect of the  
 resistance of the bridge arms on the measurement  
 of the resistance of the bridge arms is well known  
 and is usually neglected.

The ratio of the resistance of the bridge arms  
 to the resistance of the bridge arms is well known  
 and is usually neglected. The effect of the  
 resistance of the bridge arms on the measurement  
 of the resistance of the bridge arms is well known  
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 and is usually neglected.

### Kelvin's circulation theorem

A theorem of dynamics that states that in an  
 inviscid fluid the circulation around a closed  
 curve is constant. The theorem is usually stated  
 in terms of the velocity field. The theorem is  
 usually stated in terms of the velocity field. The  
 theorem is usually stated in terms of the velocity  
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 usually stated in terms of the velocity field.

$$\Gamma = \oint_C \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

where  $\mathbf{v}$  is the fluid velocity and  $d\mathbf{s}$  is a length  
 element along the curve. Circulation is a  
 strong analogy to the work done in moving a  
 particle around a closed curve in a force field.  
 Kelvin's theorem states that in an incompressible  
 inviscid fluid the circulation along a closed curve  
 always remains constant if the same fluid particles  
 do not change with time. An important consequence  
 of this theorem relates to fluid motions starting  
 from rest or uniform motion: such flows have  
 the circulation is usually zero for every possible  
 closed curve and hence remains zero. For the  
 case of circulation to Kelvin's theorem. This  
 implies that the line integral of the velocity taken  
 from fixed point  $A$  to fixed point  $B$  is indepen-  
 dent of the path from  $A$  to  $B$ . Consider for example  
 two different paths  $C$  and  $C'$  from  $A$  to  $B$ . Then  
 $C - C'$  forms a closed contour and the line in-  
 tegral around it vanishes showing that the line  
 integrals along  $C$  and  $C'$  are equal. If the line  
 integral is independent of path the integrand  
 must be a perfect differential that is the velocity  
 must equal the gradient of some scalar function  
 $\mathbf{v} = \nabla \phi$  so that

$$\int_A^B \mathbf{v} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_A^B \nabla \phi \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \phi - \phi_A$$

where  $\phi$  is called the velocity potential and is a  
 function of position in the fluid and time  $\phi =$   
 $\phi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ . Because

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \text{curl}(\text{grad } \phi) = 0$$

the fluid motion is irrotational. The fluid motion is  
 also divergence free (incompressible) and a  
 function of position in the fluid and time  $\phi =$   
 $\phi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ . Thus it follows that  $\mathbf{v} = \nabla \phi$  and  
 $\text{div } \mathbf{v} = \text{div}(\text{grad } \phi) = 0$   
 which is Laplace's equation. [A. E. H. R.]

### Kelvin's minimum energy theorem

A principle of fluid mechanics which states that  
 the motion of an incompressible inviscid fluid  
 occupies a given volume and is bounded by a  
 closed surface. The theorem states that the  
 kinetic energy of the fluid is a minimum when  
 the motion is irrotational. The theorem is usually  
 stated in terms of the velocity field. The theorem  
 is usually stated in terms of the velocity field. The  
 theorem is usually stated in terms of the velocity  
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 the velocity field. The theorem is usually stated  
 in terms of the velocity field. The theorem is  
 usually stated in terms of the velocity field.

$$T = T_0 + \frac{\rho}{2} \iint_V \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} \, dV + \rho \iint_V \phi \, dV$$

where  $\mathbf{v} = \nabla \phi$  because  $\text{div } \mathbf{v} = 0$  and  
 apply Green's theorem to the term in the last  
 integral. The result is

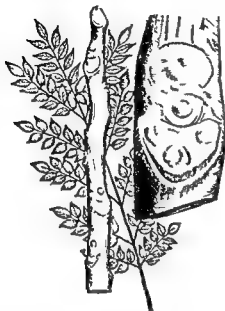
$$\rho \iint_V \phi \, dV$$



which vanishes because  $v_0 \cdot n = 0$  on the boundary. The second integral above is a positive quantity because its integrand is everywhere positive thus proving that  $T_1 > T$ . See FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES [A E BR]

## Kentucky coffeetree

A large strikingly distinct tree *Gymnocladus dioica* which usually grows to 80-90 ft but sometimes attains a height of 110 ft and a diameter of



Kentucky coffeetree *Gymnocladus dioica* (A H)   
 [Illustrated by G. D. T. Trees and Shrubs Harpe 1956]

5 ft. The species name *dioica* means that the tree is dioecious, that is, male and female flowers are on different individuals. It grows from eastern Nebraska Kansas and Oklahoma to southern Ontario western New York and Pennsylvania and southward to Louisiana. It can readily be recognized when in fruit by its leguminous pod containing hard heavy red brown seed which were used by early settlers as a substitute for coffee hence the name coffeetree. The branch are stout and thick and the bark has thin twisted ridge. The leaves are twice pinnate and the winter buds sunken in the bark are upper and lower three together. As a common tree it is sometimes cultivated in park and garden of the eastern United States and in northern and central Europe. It is sometimes used as a street tree. The wood is hard reddish and used for construction. It is durable in contact with the soil and is a useful railroad tie and fence post. See FOREST and FORESTRY TREE [A H C]

## Keratitis

Any inflammation involving the cornea of the eye. It may involve the cornea alone (keratitis) or more commonly both cornea and conjunctiva (keratoconjunctivitis). The various forms of keratitis and keratoconjunctivitis together constitute a major portion of all eye diseases. Fortunately many forms

are not severe and do not result in visual impairment nevertheless keratitis is a disease of major importance being second only to cataract and equal to glaucoma as a cause of blindness.

**Corneal structure and injuries.** The outer surface of the cornea is covered by a delicate membrane (epithelium) composed of flattened epithelial cells and closely resembling the mucous membrane lining the nasal passages and mouth. The substance (stroma) of the cornea is composed of interlacing layers of collagen fibrils similar to those seen in tendons, ligaments and other connective tissues of the body but more regularly arranged. It is this regularity of structure that gives to the cornea its property of optical transparency. Any alteration of this structural regularity due to destruction of the epithelium or stroma or to the presence of pus, edema fluid or scar formation results in an opaque region in the affected portion of the cornea.

Such an opacity will usually be temporary if the injury is limited to the epithelium but permanent if the stroma is also damaged. Although the response of the cornea to injury is similar in many respects to that of other body tissue it is modified by the fact that the normal cornea does not contain blood vessels. Blood vessels from the surrounding conjunctiva are stimulated to grow into the cornea only if injury is severe enough to cause destruction and swelling of the corneal stroma. Since scar formation requires the presence of blood vessels this means that injuries of only the epithelial membrane ordinarily heal without scarring. In such cases healing occurs by growth and spread of epithelial cells from adjacent uninjured zones into the injured area leaving little or no residual opacity. These epithelial cells have a remarkable capacity for such growth and can completely recolonize the entire cornea within a few days. Deeper injuries which cause ingrowth of blood vessels leave a permanent mark in the form of a scar visible as a gray white opaque region in the cornea. The degree of visual impairment is determined by the position as well as the size of the scar.

**Etiology.** Keratitis may be caused by mechanical injury, infectious agent (bacteria, virus, fungus, protozoa), extreme of heat or cold, drying, radiation, corrosion or irritating chemical, allergy or may occur in association with disease affecting the entire body such as vitamin deficiency. Keratitis is frequently accompanied by other diseases affecting the eye such as glaucoma. See CATARACT.

Since the cornea is so transparent, injury in almost any way, either by regression of epithelium in superficial injury or by varying degrees of scar formation in more severe injuries, the degree of permanent impairment of vision is determined primarily by the extent of the injury rather than by the nature of the injury agent. Of the various agents, bacteria are the most important since a cornea injured by a yeast mold is particularly susceptible to superinfection by bacteria. Infections frequently result in deepening of the scar and thus the initial injury. See FURTHER READING [W R A D]

### Keratoconjunctivitis (epidemic)

A al die ech r t z d by n acute conjunc  
u u follo ed by keratiti wh h in m r ca es  
lea s r nd sup fici l opacities in the c rnea  
frupt 2 y r lti al o kn wn as lypard eye  
The ul alag nt dno r typ ■ Diag  
us m de by olati n f rus from ul r e-  
r ti na inoc l ted int ts ue l t re r by th  
dem nt st n of nt body e pones 1 the blo d  
S A tmony

ep d es nd ep d mc h e occur d in  
m v e untries p r c l rly in h p y d and in  
d tral p t s Th mod f pread s n t po  
t rly kno n R g d a cp s in m dical d s ion f  
m d f al an t b s re ommeded t p e ent  
po ble p ead by med cal att ndant r by n  
trum t Se ADE OVIRUS ANIMAL VIRUS

[JLV]

## Kerogen

A large amount to the complex granular primary  
carbonaceous shales and oil shale. It is  
well developed in the middle of the section  
of the field, and is a characteristic of the  
complicated layer of the middle of the  
and the hemi-aluminum of the  
material with the primary  
proportion. It is the most common of the  
carbonaceous earth and the  
these 1000 tons of the  
these is the first of the  
position in the  
about 5-10% hydrous 10-15% and  
a small percentage of the oil shale.

[1 A B]

## Kerosine

Th 1 5 ed p t o l e m f r a t i m p l y e d a f i  
f l a m p a j e t e n g n a n d m l l h t g a p p l y  
a r e c h a c o k i n g t o f w h i c h g s l n e  
i s u a b l e m a d t i l l d f o m t h e f r e  
i n o l n m l c r u d o i l b o l g b e t w e n 350 a n d  
50 f l r e f i n d t o h a v e p c i f i c g r a n y o f  
a b o u t 0.80 a n d m a n l i q u i d a b o u t -25 F  
Th c h e m l m a k e u p a p t y w e l l m i n t e d t h e  
n i b l e p r e f i n a d s p h i t e m ( C t o C ) Th  
p e c t i a r e r g d t h r w t h e m a t e r  
n i l w l l n o t p e r f m i t a t o l y f t e  
t h h y d r o c h o n m k e p m i t b e p a f f i c t  
a n d m k y f i m t h c t y m u t b b u t  
p o s e t l l w t f a c t r y f e d g b y w k  
t h n t o f l l m p t e w h h w o u l d  
l g t h o c k m b e l y a d t h e l f u r n  
t m t b l e s t h a Q 2 r T o e d u c e p l o  
t h r a d a f h p n t i b u t 120-140 F  
p e c f i c d

h a m s c l l n e o c h f l y v a  
s o l p e t f t e c t c d e s l t a w d e l e d a f l  
f l t n g s a n d m e t m r e c i p c t l l  
e n g f l A b o u t 5 c f t h e w l d d e l  
p o d c n 2 5 0 0 0 0 0 0 r l p r y o l l a  
l S D t h l t e f l l P E T R O L E U M P R O D  
u c t s [ M S O ]

### Kerr effect

When a substance is placed in an electric field it may become partially oriented. This makes the substance anisotropic and gives it birefringence. This is the ability to refract light differently in two directions. This electrically induced birefringence discovered in 1875 by J. Kerr is called the electrooptic Kerr effect or simply the Kerr effect (Faraday rotation of the magnetic electrooptic Kerr effect is called magneto-optics). This effect must be differentiated from birefringence due to mechanical strain produced by stress by an electric field. The latter effect in crystals is sometimes called the Pockels effect.

When a liquid is placed in an electric field it behaves optically like uniaxial crystal with the optic axis parallel to the electric field of force. The Kerr effect is usually derived by placing light between two parallel plates situated in glass cell containing the liquid. Such a device is known as a Kerr cell. There are two principal indices of refraction and a known third refractive index is ordinary incidence and the subtended angle is parallel to the electric field birefringent substance depending on whether it is positive or negative.

Light passes through the medium normally to the  
 surface of the plates and is split into two linearly polarized  
 waves traveling with the velocity  $c/n$  and  $c/d$   
 respectively where  $c$  is the velocity of light and  
 $d$  is the thickness of the plates.

The difference in propagation velocity causes a phase difference between the two waves which forms no harmonic light of wavelength  $\lambda_0$  is  $\delta = (-x/\lambda_0)$  where  $x$  is the length of the light path in the medium.

Kerr constant  $k$  is found empirically that  
 $(n - n_0) = \lambda_0 E^2$  where  $E$  is the electric field  
 strength and  $\lambda_0$  is the characteristic of the ma-  
 terial called the Kerr constant. Haidich law  
 states that  $B\lambda_0, (n - 1) = k$  where  $n$  is the re-  
 fractive index of the substance. The above  
 field is a dielectric constant characteris-  
 tic of the substance depends on the wavelength  $\lambda$ .  
 Roughly speaking the Kerr constant is in-  
 versely proportional to the birefringence. The  
 physical effects of the Kerr constant are experimen-  
 tally by using optical technique. If the wave-  
 length  $\lambda$  is preselected, the electric field strength  
 $E$  in  $\text{V/cm}$  is  $1 \text{ at } \lambda = 300 \text{ nm}$  the  
 Kerr constant is  $1 \text{ in } 10^6$  which has been  
 determined satisfactorily as  $\lambda = 3226 \times 10^{-6}$   
 $\text{V}$  of  $B$  is given from  $-2300 \times 10^{-6}$  for pa-  
 rallel  $+3460 \times 10^{-6}$  for perpendicular.

Th the ry f the herr Sect : b ed n th fact  
that nd vidual mole ul a nt j cder ally o-  
tr p but h e pr m t o d del i c di  
pol Th electr field r d t i n t hes dt  
l pol s wh l th n rm al th m ag tat i d to  
de tro y the r t ion Th bl nc that t r k  
dep nd on the z f th d pole m m nt th mag  
t d f th le tr fl d



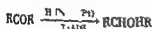
## Ketone

One of a class of chemical compounds of general formula  $RCOR$  where  $R$  and  $R'$  are alkyl or aryl or heterocyclic radicals. The groups  $R$  and  $R'$  may be the same or different or incorporated into a ring as in  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CO}$  (cyclopentanone)

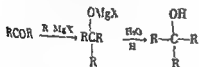
The ketones acetone and methyl ethyl ketone are used as solvents. Other ketones are important intermediates in the syntheses of organic compounds.

By common nomenclature rules, the  $R$  and  $R'$  groups are named followed by the word ketone. For example  $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COCH}_2\text{CH}_3$  (diethyl ketone)  $\text{CH}_3\text{COCH}(\text{CH}_3)_2$  (methyl isopropyl ketone)  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{CO}_2\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$  (diphenyl ketone). IUPAC nomenclature uses the name of the hydrocarbon corresponding to the maximum number of carbon atoms in the ketone molecule followed by on and preceded by a number designating the position of the carbonyl group in the carbon chain. This gives the names 2-pentanone and 3-methyl butan-2-one for the first two ketones above.

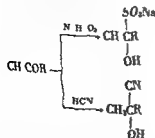
Reactions of ketones. Addition to the carbonyl group is the most important type of ketone reaction. Ketones react with aldehydes in addition to form the methyl ketones ( $R$  or  $R' = \text{CH}_3$ ) are appreciably more reactive than the ketones. This is due to the steric and steric factors of the attached groups. Hydrogen adds catalytically to the carbonyl group of aldehydes and alcohols, but gives the same type of product as methyl ketones. The Grignard reagent adds to the carbonyl



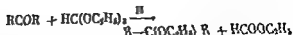
Primary and secondary alcohols are formed by hydrolysis of the addition product.



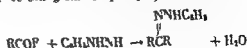
The Reimer-Tiemann reaction  $\text{XZnCHCOOR}$  reacts with hydrazine and sodium disulfide will add to methyl ketone.



Alcohols do not add readily to the ketone carbonyl as they do to the aldehyde carbonyl, but ketals may be formed by reaction with reagents.



Amines such as hydroxylamine ( $\text{NH}_2\text{OH}$ ), phenylhydrazine ( $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NHNH}_2$ ) and semicarbazide ( $\text{NH}_2\text{CONHNH}_2$ ) add to the carbonyl by breaking the  $\text{C}=\text{O}$  bond and with subsequent loss of water. The resulting oximes, phenylhydrazones and semi-



carbazones are useful derivatives for the identification and characterization of ketones.

Ketones supply alpha hydrogens in aldol type condensation reactions but can supply a carbonyl group only to a limited extent due to its lower reactivity.



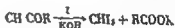
An exception: the self-condensation of acetone to diacetone alcohol.



The low molecular weight ketones generally have more reactive carbonyl groups for all reactions due to the exposed position of the group and to the rigidity of the ring.

Ketones are oxidized less readily and less selectively than aldehydes to give oxidation products such as carboxylic acids by cleavage of the bonds from the carbonyl carbon atom to the adjacent atom. They fail to give the Tollens and Fehling tests although alpha-hydroxy ketones will give the tests.

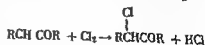
Methyl ketones give the haloform reaction with halogens in aqueous solution to give haloform and carboxylic acids.



The oxygen atom of the carbonyl group of ketones may be replaced by two halogen atoms by treatment with phosphorus pentachloride  $\text{PCl}_5$ . The high molecular weight ketones are poor.

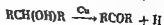


Chloroform and bromine will substitute the alpha hydrogens of ketones. This is called the alpha-halo-



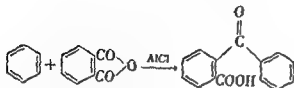
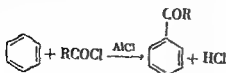
in a quite reaction in displacement reactions of the halogen atom.

Preparation of ketones. The hydroxylation of secondary alcohols at elevated temperatures yields ketones and this is a suitable commercial method where the secondary alcohol is of

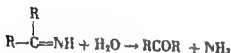
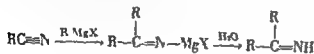


low cost as for example those obtained by olefin hydration

Aromatic ketones may be prepared by the Friedel Crafts reaction by acylation with acid halides or anhydrides



The Grignard reagent adds to nitriles to give ketones which form ketones on hydrolysis



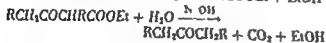
Organozinc and organocadmium reagents give ketones upon reaction with acid halides. The organometallic compounds are best prepared from the Grignard reagent and the metal halide



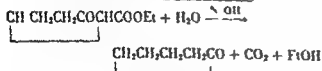
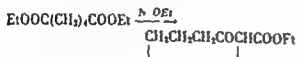
ganometallic compounds are best prepared from the Grignard reagent and the metal halide



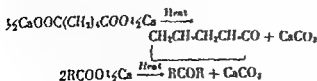
Beta ketoesters formed in the Claisen condensation are cleaved by aqueous sodium hydroxide solution to form ketones



The Dieckmann condensation of esters of dibasic acids leads in similar fashion to cyclic ketones

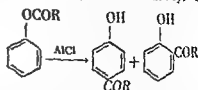


Both cyclic and open chain ketone are formed by pyrolysis of calcium or thorium salt of dibasic acids or monobasic acids



Esters of phenols rearrange when heated with aluminum chloride to form phenyl ketones (Fries

rearrangement) in which the carbonyl group is ortho or para to a phenolic hydroxyl. See Alder



HYDRE CONDENSATION REACTION FRIEDEL CRAFTS REACTION GRIGNARD REACTION HALOFORM REACTION REFORMATSKY REACTION STERIC EFFECT (CHEMICAL REACTIONS) [D + C]

Bibliography R Adams (ed.) *Organic Reactions* vol 5 and 11 1949 and 1954 C. R. Noller *Chemistry of Organic Compounds* 2d ed 1950

## Ketosis

An excessive accumulation of ketone bodies in the tissues blood and urine. Ketone bodies are acetoacetic acid,  $\beta$ -hydroxybutyric acid and acetone, all of which are formed by the oxidation of fatty acid by the liver. See KETONURIA

When a disturbance in carbohydrate metabolism is present, ketone bodies are produced in excess. This results when the tissue requirement for energy are not met by a readily available or utilizable supply of glucose. Fat and protein must then be mobilized to the liver which transforms the substances into glucose, a process called gluconeogenesis. In the series of biochemical shifts involved, fatty acids are oxidized in large amounts so that their normal breakdown product, the ketone bodies, accumulate. See CARBOHYDRATE CARBOHYDRATE METABOLISM GLUCOSE

The ketone bodies, by virtue of their acid properties, hold an equivalent amount of base thus producing a form of acidosis. This is seen clinically in certain cases of diabetes in starvation, occurs usually in hyperthyroidism and in a variety of other diseases in which there is an absolute or relative decrease in carbohydrate availability. See THE KIDNEY GLAND DISEASES

In ketosis, the breath has a fruity odor and there is usually evidence of dehydration, weakness, malaise, headache, nausea and vomiting, are common. See DISEASE PATHOLOGY [F + C]

## Kidney

Pair of structures found in the dorsal region of the body cavity of animal, belonging to the excretory system. The organ is the major part of the work of maintaining body fluid at proper concentration and composition. Comparative study of kidney structure reveals various adaptations related to the water problem in various animals and the general principles of excretion.

The nephron, the structural unit of the kidney, is formed by the glomerulus and the tubule. The glomerulus is a tuft of capillaries in the renal artery, the glomerular capillary, in the glomerulus. [F + C]









nephros is of interest also because it shows features presumed to be primitive and suggesting a series of stages in evolution of the nephron as shown in Fig 2

**Mesonephros** The nephrons form behind the pronephros along the middle zone of the coelom. The tubules usually become involved in sperm transport. Drainage is through the archinephric duct. The mesonephros never forms an entire adult kidney. It is functional in the chick and other amniote embryos.

**Opisthonephros** Nephrons develop from the middle and posterior portions of intermediate mesoderm. The middle mesonephric tubules sometimes form only a minor part. The archinephric duct may be supplemented or even replaced by ureter-like accessory drainage ducts. This is the functional adult kidney in amphibians and fishes.

**Metanephros** Nephrons form from only the extreme posterior part of the intermediate mesoderm and are drained by a distinctive new canal, the ureter, which grows forward from the base of the archinephric duct before the tubules have begun to develop. This is the kidney of adult reptiles, birds, and mammals. Their embryos show a distinct sequence of pro-, meso- and metanephric kidneys (Fig 3).

**Mature kidney** The kidney as a whole tends to be long and straplike in fishes, lying near the mid-dorsal line and barely projecting into the coelom. In other vertebrates it is considerably shortened

and extends prominently into the posterior region of the body cavity, sometimes suspended by a mesentery. The number of tubules in one kidney varies from one to several million depending in part upon body size but also upon metabolic rate.

In all classes of vertebrates, renal arteries deliver blood to the glomeruli and tubules. Except in cyclostomes and mammals, blood also enters the kidney by way of a renal portal vein. This carries blood from the tail and posterior parts of the body into sinuses surrounding the kidney tubules, where it joins that brought by the renal artery and finally drains away through renal veins. See URINARY SYSTEM [BB0]

## Kidney disorders

Probably because of their complex embryological derivation, the genitourinary organs are frequently the site of developmental abnormalities. Congenital absence of both kidneys permits only a brief postnatal life. Absence of one kidney is common and produces no symptoms, a single kidney being perfectly adequate for normal life. Horseshoe kidney, a descriptive term for fusion of the two kidneys at one pole, is not rare. Also familiar are double ureters, double pelvis, and aberrant arteries. These conditions are significant only if they produce obstruction to the flow of urine. Obstruction due to any cause leads to dilatation of the proximal structures known as hydronephrosis if the ureter is involved or hydronephrosis if the kidney pelvis is affected. One characteristic form of maldevelopment is the polycystic kidney in which both kidneys become greatly enlarged and converted into many thin-walled cysts, apparently because of a diffuse defect in development of the tubules. Persons so afflicted usually develop renal failure and die in middle adult life.

**Calculi** Stones in the kidney pelvis occur frequently. There is a deposition of chemicals present in urine, apparently starting in the tips of the papillae, later protruding into the renal pelvis and ultimately breaking free. There are several different chemical types of calculi occurring under different circumstances. Uric acid and urate calculi reflect excessive metabolic production of these substances and appear particularly when the person suffers from gout. Calcium oxalate calculi commonly occur if there are excessive oxalates in the diet, derived particularly from fruits and vegetables. Crystalline calcium carbonate and phosphate stones may occur when an overactive parathyroid gland increases the excretion of calcium, when too much milk is ingested, or when alkalosis decreases the solubility of calcium salts. Amorphous carbonates and triple phosphates are characteristically found in calculi as a result of infection and stagnation, probably being deposited around a mass of pus and bacteria. Small calculi may be composed of a single component; large calculi usually are of mixed composition.

Stones may pass into the ureters when they are small or may remain in the pelvis and enlarge un-

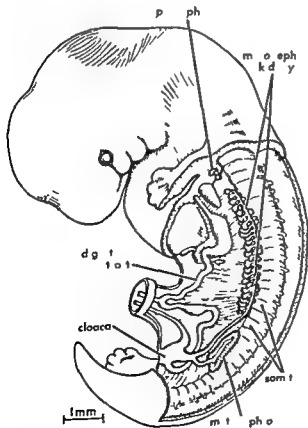
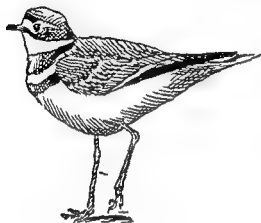


Fig 3 Human embryo of 6 weeks dissected to show the three successive kidneys which develop in the intermediate mesoderm.

## Kildeer

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## Killfish

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## Kiln

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lary glomerulosclerosis and is associated with marked albuminuria

**Kidneys in hypertension** The kidneys are almost invariably diseased when high blood pressure is present but there is not a simple cause and effect relationship. In the ordinary essential hypertension kidney tissue is often entirely normal after hypertension is well established, strongly suggesting that the lesions of nephrosclerosis are the result rather than the cause of the elevated blood pressure. Apparently the prolonged arteriolar spasm necessary to maintain the high blood pressure eventually leads to organic damage to arterioles followed by scarring of the kidneys. On the other hand it is well established that damaged renal tissue may release pressor substances capable of causing hypertension. Pressors may be produced in a kidney whose major arteries are markedly narrowed or in which pyelonephritis is present. The hypertension so produced can be eliminated by removal of the diseased kidney.

**Lower nephron nephrosis** This is the most widely used appellation for an extremely important acute reversible form of severe kidney shutdown. It occurs following prolonged shock and hypotension or after absorption of certain hemoglobin compounds following incompatible blood transfusion or after destructive injuries of muscle. The sequence of events following the original injury is suppression of urinary excretion usually complete followed by rising blood levels of nitrogenous wastes. After about 10 days urine excretion usually commences again but the urine first produced consists chiefly of water with relatively little nitrogen. In due time which may be as long as 2 months the renal function returns to normal. Death is not common unless the original injury is itself fatal or the patient receives too much fluid which he cannot excrete. Because of its reversibility this particular renal lesion is one of the best suited for treatment by the artificial kidney.

The renal lesions are relatively subtle and inconsistent, consisting of edema of the tissues between the tubule, heme casts in the tubules and focal injury to tubular epithelium chiefly of the distal nephron.

**Renal failure** When the kidneys are unable to carry on their normal functions of excreting waste and balancing the internal chemical environment of the body, renal failure is present. This may occur abruptly as in lower nephron nephrosis or obstructive disease of the urinary tract but most often develops gradually because of progressive destruction of renal tissue by disease. The sequence of events is about the same whether parenchymal destruction is the result of pyelonephritis, glomerulonephritis, nephrosclerosis or other cause.

In the early or compensated stage the kidneys lose their functional reserve that is the ability to meet stress. The power to excrete concentrated urine when little fluid is taken in or to excrete a dilute urine when much fluid is ingested gradually disappears and the urine specific gravity ultimately

becomes fixed at 1.010 the specific gravity of an ultrafiltrate of blood serum. Similarly nitrogenous wastes cannot be selectively concentrated but are merely washed through. Also ability to excrete bases or acids to compensate for shifts in intake and to maintain the normal pH (7.4) of blood gradually vanishes.

In the later or decompensated stage complete excretion of certain substances is no longer possible and their blood concentrations rise. Most important of these substances are potassium, phosphates and nitrogenous wastes such as urea and creatinine. Sodium and water accumulate in the tissues in edema fluid. Edema is also aggravated by fall in serum albumin caused both by loss in the urine and poor intake in the diet. In children with chronic renal failure the phosphate retention produces severe disturbances of calcium metabolism which sometimes results in a bone disorder called renal rickets. Anemia is usually present for several reasons of which probably the most important is destruction of red blood cells by circulating poisons.

The end stage of renal failure is uremia. Symptoms include convulsions, vomiting, diarrhea and coma. Lesions are found in many organs. They include fatty droplet accumulations in heart muscle, acute fibrinous pericarditis, ulcers of the intestinal tract, a white powdery froth on the skin and edema of the brain. These changes are reversible if the renal failure can be relieved. Extensive studies have failed to pinpoint the particular poison or poisons responsible for the individual lesion.

**Cysts** Single or multiple cysts with thin walls containing clear fluid are extremely common. They often result from obstruction of tubules by scars and are not important except in polycystic kidney.

**Tumors** There are three important malignant tumors of the kidney, all having a high mortality rate. Wilms tumor, found in infants, is made up of a mixture of small glands and of sarcoma cells particularly of muscle type. It is often termed an adenosarcoma. The tumor usually occurs as a large abdominal mass and is rapidly fatal if untreated. Some children are cured by radiation and surgery. Renal cell carcinoma or hypernephroma grows in the renal substance of adults as a hemorrhagic yellow usually encapsulated tumor. The first symptoms may be irregular fever, hematuria or those of distant metastasis. Because it is in advance the veins early it tends to metastasize through the bloodstream particularly to lung, brain and bone. Metastases may appear many years after the kidney tumor has been removed. Sometime there may be solitary metastases curable by surgery. Transitional cell carcinoma arises in the epithelium of the pelvis, produces hematuria early and tends to spread down the epithelium of the ureter. See KIDNEY METABOLIC DISORDERS, ONCOLOGY SYSTEM. [RUB]

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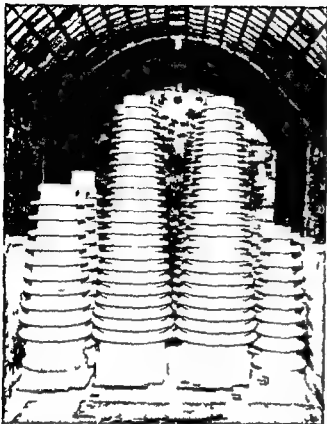


Fig 1 Interior view of a periodic kiln showing a setting of electrical porcelain insulators ready for firing (Swidell Dressler Inc)

example is heated at relatively low temperatures in kettles to form plaster of paris. See PLASTER OF PARIS. Kilns for firing formed ceramic products may be either periodic or continuous in operation.

**Periodic kilns.** In this type of kiln the cycle of setting ware in the kiln, heating up, soaking, or holding at peak temperature for some time, cooling, and removing or drawing the ware is repeated for each batch. Such kilns range in size from laboratory or art pottery kilns with chambers a few inches on a side to large domed structures 40–50 ft in diameter used to fire brick and other heavy clay ware. Large combustion-fired kilns are known as up or downdraft kilns depending on how the hot gases move through the kiln from firebox to ex-

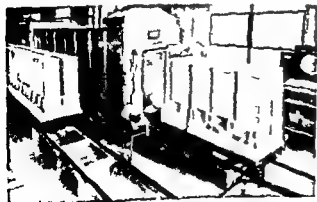


Fig 2 View of a medium-sized tunnel kiln used to fire feed ceramic floor tile (Swidell Dressler Inc)

haust. Periodic kilns have relatively low efficiency because the heat used to raise the kiln itself to temperature is largely thrown away each time the kiln is cooled, although some of the heat may be used to operate a drier.

**Chamber kilns.** This type of kiln represents the first step toward continuous firing, and it consists of a series of adjacent chambers in a ring or oval. Firing is arranged (with a movable stack) so that the fire moves from chamber to chamber around the ring, taking several days to make a complete circuit. The flues are so arranged that waste gas from the fire passes through chambers toward which the fire is moving and heats them, while the combustion air is led to the fire through chambers already fired and is preheated. The preheating of both ware and combustion air (by waste gases and cooling ware respectively) gives a considerable increase in efficiency over the periodic kiln. Although widely used in Europe, this type of kiln was never adopted in this country.

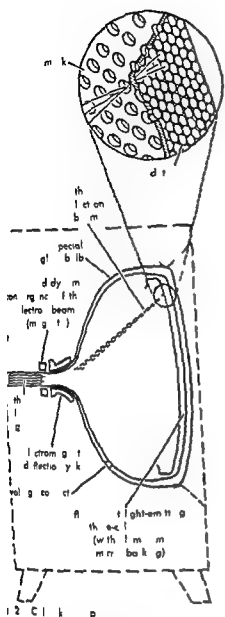
**Tunnel kilns.** These are long structures with the fire located near the midpoint. The kiln is designed so the temperature rises gradually from each end to a maximum in the middle. Ware is fired by loading it on cars which are pushed through the kiln, thereby subjecting the ware to a heating, soaking, and cooling cycle. Since the kiln itself remains at essentially the same temperature and only the ware and kiln cars are heated and cooled during each cycle, operating efficiency is higher both in terms of fuel savings and of less wear and tear on the kiln. Tunnel kilns range in size from a few feet long (with a cross section a few inches on a side) to over 100 ft long (and a cross section up to 6 × 8 ft).

**Muffle kiln.** In this type of kiln a refractory wall or chamber prevents direct contact between the flame and the ware. It may be periodic or continuous in operation, and it is used in firing products such as high-grade dinnerware when the price of the ware justifies the expense of a less efficient firing operation.

**Kiln furniture.** These are refractory shapes used for setting and supporting ware in the kiln. They include pins on which glazed ware is set and the posts and plates from which shelves are built on a kiln car.

**Saggars.** A type of kiln furniture, are refractory chambers or boxes in which fine ware is set for firing. They differ from muffle, which are a structural part of the kiln, in that they are set in the kiln at each firing. Besides protecting ware, they provide support for pieces which become soft at the firing temperature.

**Heating.** Heat for kilns may be obtained from the combustion of wood (largely obsolete), coal (becoming less common), oil or gas, or from electric heating element. Oil and gas are preferred for large manufacturing operations because they combine economy with fair rate of temperature control. When close temperature control of a high-priced product (for example, electroceramics) or when



sp ced be ms The third devic s termed a shadow mask tube

All c lor pictur tibe are omewhat limit d in l ght tput as mpar d with blk and white tibe by the f ct that th ph pho s are h en for ex ell nce of primary col r rather than high lumi us efficie y S me c lor systems have add ti nal output limitatio f the e re n col r tubes are usually operated at higher c rrents a d v ltage than their blk and white munte part Altho gh each colo tub ystem has certa n ad a tage only the shad wma k type has be n c f lly devel ped for high produ tio lts ad va tages are it ability t pr duce c lor as pure a n ph sph r p m se n ex cellent co t a t th fea bility of u g it a fine barely percepti bl d t s een t c t re and the fa t that the cur re t fr m three beam s ille f r simultaneous p e e t a t n A cure tly a sailable c mme tial h d wma k tube con t of a 21 n-diameter t nd gl b lb 70 m x m m d flecti n angle a triple beam gun having elect ost t i l cu nd m gn tic me n so keep ng the three ele tr n b m c nve ged to a p nt and a urved spr tu e m k reg ter d with and l e to the pho phor d t ee The d t n he gon al s y dep ted on the sph cal faceplate M gn tic sea ning a d n h nized dynam c on ergenc are u ed (see Fig 2) S e COLOR TELEVISION [C I S]

Bbl gophy L S All rd D ign fctor n tle n th d ray tub s P oc IEE (Lo do ) 99(3x) 499-507 1952 D C Fnk (ed) T l e s n E g n i g H ndbo k 1957 H B Law A the gun shadowma k ol r k e cop P oc IRE 39(10) 1186-1194 1951 H R Sele et al D el pment of a 21 m tale vel pe c l r k e sc pe RCA R t 16(1) 122 139 1955 C P Smith t l De gn nd d l pment of th RCA 21CYP22 21 n ch gl l g n tur t be RCA Rev 19 334-348 1958

### Kinesthetic sensation

Th k d f feeling g n t i b o d y m o m e n t d a r g f r m t i m l a t n o f t h n o y e r v e t h a t m n t n m u l e t e d n d j n t l t b y m f k n e t h (l t l y f l i n g f m o t ) t h t t l e m p b l e t w l k w i t h i t l o o k i g t h f e t e a t w i t h g t h h a n d c o n e y f o o d t h m t h r t m a t e t h w g h t o f o b j i m e e l y l y h e f t n g t h m

F r w e l l o e n t r y e t h e t m e f S C h l e s B l l ( n d 18 6) t h e m n l e a t w e t h l l e d h e e n r e c g n e d a s v t h t p d d d t t h c l a l f e o f A r t t l g h e n g f e e l m m l a d t t A t f i r t r y e t n i m m l e s w t l g h t l l u l y e s p h l e f p p l y g f m a t n a b o t p o t a l h g H w e t h e v d e g a d a l l y c m e t o f a t l n e r v e n d g i t e d d t i l (j o t i t ) p d i g t h b l k f c h d t N o w i s k n w n t h a p p t a t o f l i m b m m n t h e f t h e m a j o r i t y f p o s t r l d j m t n s y d b y w y f r e e p

Color kinescope A c t r i l i p t u t u b m l t t h b l k d w h i t e p t u r t i b e b u t f m t w a y (1) T h l i g h t m i t t i n g e m d p f m l e m t l e e h p l e l m t i g l i g h t n n f t h e t h r e e p m v l (e d g b l ) l d s n t l e d s y (2) M a p d d f l e t l y t g a n m f t h p h p m e C l m y b o t l l d b a y f t h e e m e t h o d (1) n e x h h t u r a l l e c t n b e a m u n g l d e a d p h p r a w t h s e e d l k x l f m t h n t h g h r t r w h h m t r s d t t f t h l m ( ) ( ) a t h g d d g u t r e d w i t h t h w n h d f t t h l a m t h e p r p e r t h t h (3) a w e e t u t e w h p d e f o n g h x m d g t m d t l e a m d a c t i o n f l l y e d w i t h t h e g u l r y

cathode ray tube construction see CATHODE RAY TUBE This article discusses construction specific to kinescopes

**Deflection angle** This is the maximum angle through which the electron beam must be deflected to scan the picture area. Most tubes in use today have deflection angles of 90 or 110

**Focus** Picture tubes are defined by the method used to focus the stream of electrons to a small spot. There are two general methods: magnetic focus using a strong external electromagnet and electrostatic focus accomplished by applying voltage differences to the electron gun electrodes. Electrostatic focus has become universal because of its lower cost.

**Electromagnetic deflection** The electron beam is deflected electromagnetically to cause it to scan the picture area. This deflection is accomplished by a deflecting yoke made up of two pairs of shaped coils which fit around the small neck of the picture tube (see Fig. 1). When pulsating electric currents of proper wave shape and phase are supplied to these coils, they generate magnetic fields which cause the electron beam to bend as it passes through them. By changing the magnitude and direction of the magnetic field, the electron beam can be made to arrive at any point on the face of the picture tube.

**Glass envelope** The glass envelope is made of a special composition to minimize optical defects and to provide electrical insulation for high voltage. It also provides protection against x-radiation and has a light absorption characteristic which improves the contrast of the picture when it is viewed in brightly illuminated locations. The structural design of the glass bulb is made to withstand

3-6 times the force of atmospheric pressure to provide a safety margin over normal atmospheric pressure. However, care must be taken in handling these evacuated glass bulbs or a dangerous explosion may result.

**Aluminized screen** The luminescent screen is made of a thin layer of phosphors 0.001 in. thick ( $3 \text{ mg/cm}^2$ ). The phosphor materials are primarily zinc cadmium sulfide (emits yellow light) and zinc sulfide (emits blue light). By careful proportioning and mixing of the two phosphors, the resultant emanation is a blue-white light which most manufacturers have adjusted to a color temperature of between 9000 and 12 000 K.

The luminescent screen is aluminized by vacuum evaporation from a small molten aluminum pellet. The thin layer of aluminum, approximately 2000 Å, is deposited on a smooth plastic film placed on top of the luminescent screen. The plastic film is subsequently volatilized and removed in the high temperature processing of the tube. In the operation of the completed tube, the high-velocity electron beam penetrates the aluminum film and its energy is transferred primarily to the luminescent screen. Only a small percentage (10-20%) of the electron beam energy is converted into useful light energy, but even this amount is sufficient to produce brightnesses of several hundred foot-lamers in the picture highlights. The reflection of light by the aluminum mirror increases the picture brightness and improves picture contrast by preventing stray light from illuminating the back side of the luminescent screen.

**Wall coating** Graphite coatings are placed on the inside walls of the bulb to provide electrically conducting surfaces between the screen and the electron gun and to provide a unipotential field through which the electron beam may travel without being disturbed by stray electrostatic fields. Graphite is a sufficiently poor conductor to minimize eddy current power absorption from the electromagnetic fields generated by the external deflecting yoke.

**Electron gun** The electron gun produces a stream of high-velocity electrons which are focused to a small spot at the screen. In currently used commercial tubes, the spot produced by the electron beam at the screen is approximately 0.025-0.125 in. in diameter depending on beam current required (usually 50-1000 microamperes). The beam current is controlled by an electrical signal supplied to the cathode with respect to grid No. 1, called cathode drive or grid No. 1 with respect to the cathode, called grid drive. Conventional tubes require 50-195 V of signal to modulate the beam from zero beam current (picture dark) to maximum beam current (picture high light).

Transistorized portable battery-operated TV receivers picture tubes requiring less signal voltage, much less power for deflection of the electron beam, and smaller amounts of power to heat the cathode from which the electrons are emitted.

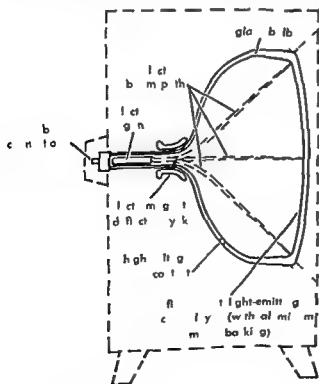


Fig. 1 Black-and-white kinescope





tors at or near bony articulations. The most crucial evidence comes from abnormalities. Joint sensibility may be retained in the presence of muscular and cutaneous anesthesia of the same region. The converse also occurs, such as retention of sensibility of skin and muscle but failure to discriminate passive movement of the limb because articular sensitivity has been impaired.

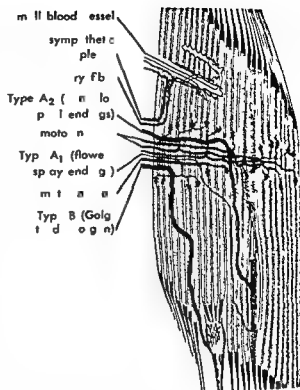
**Kinesthetic receptors.** Four types of sensory nerve ending are involved in the appreciation of bodily movement. They are (1) free nerve endings, (2) Pacinian corpuscles, (3) Golgi tendon organs and (4) muscle spindles.

**Free endings.** These are the most commonly occurring sensory nerve terminations in the body. They are found in deep tissues—subcutaneous layers, fascia (muscle sheath), periosteum (bone covering)—as well as at the cutaneous level where their distribution is almost ubiquitous and where endings of neighboring nerve fibers overlap and interdigitate with one another in some profusion. The presumption is that it is the free endings of the periosteum and the fascia that contribute so heavily to kinesthetic sensation, though this may by no means firmly established. Free nerve endings are also suspected as initiators of pain, which can be most exquisite in the periosteal and fascial regions.

**Pacinian corpuscles.** Pacinian corpuscles are the largest of the specialized sensory nerve endings in the body, being situated suitably to serve as kinesthetic receptors. They are found in the sheaths covering muscles and tendons and are scattered through deep fatty tissue. Relatively few in number, they are encapsulated, consisting of many concentric layers of fibrous tissue containing nerve endings. They are attached to large diameter sensory fibers and are known to respond to any nearby distorting force, whether it be muscular contraction or mechanical deformation transmitted from the body surface.

**Golgi tendon organs.** These organs, situated near the junction of muscle fibers and tendon, would seem to be most advantageously placed to report on muscle movement. Recordings of electrical changes in their attached fibers show them to signal both muscle stretch and active contraction. Impulse frequency has been found to be roughly proportional to the common logarithm of the tension imposed on the tendon. Golgi organs may therefore be thought of as muscle tension recorders.

**Muscle spindles.** The most complexly organized of the kinesthetic receptors are the muscle spindles, which have two distinctly different kinds of terminations. These have been designated Type A<sub>1</sub> (flower-spray endings) and Type A<sub>2</sub> (annulo spiral endings) by the British physiologist B. H. C. Matthews, who originally described them. Typically, A<sub>1</sub> fibers are of smaller diameter and are therefore slower conducting than A<sub>2</sub> fibers. Both types initiate impulses when their muscle bundle is stretched and generally cease firing impulses when the muscle contracts. The fibers leading from muscle spindles therefore have been termed stretch afferents. Type



Nerve endings in muscle sensation (J. F. Fulton, *Physiology of the Nervous System*, 2d ed., Oxford, 1943).

A<sub>2</sub> additionally generates kinesthetic impulses when its muscle is very strongly contracted.

**Kinesthetic discriminations.** Since it is the receptors situated in the neighborhood of bony articulations that supply the most exact information about bodily movement, the finest kinesthetic discriminations are associated with joint displacements. Measurement of the ability to discriminate such movements is accomplished by arranging for a limb or appendage to be moved mechanically and passively at a uniform rate, and the least detectable amount of movement based solely on feel is determined. In such experiments, it is typically found that the greatest sensitivity is associated with the larger joints (hip and shoulder), while the least is found in the ankle and toes. At a speed of displacement of 10°/min, thresholds vary roughly between 0.2° (hip) and 0.7° (main joint of big toe).

Since appreciation of postural change seems to depend mainly on articular sensitivity, the roles of muscles and tendons must be secondary in kinesthetics. Muscular and tendinous sensitivities presumably add feelings of strain when resistance to limb movement is encountered, as in lifting weight or pushing against stationary objects. See SOMMERHUIS [FAC]

## Kinetic theory of matter

A theory which states that the particles of matter in all states of aggregation are in vigorous motion. In computation, involving kinetic theory, the methods of statistical mechanics are applied to specific physical systems. The atomistic or molecular structure of the system involved is assumed, and the system is then described in terms of appropriate

Equipartition theorem and specific heat In a classical ideal gas the energy is associated with the translational degrees of freedom the same

$$\frac{1}{2} \bar{v}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \bar{v}_x^2 = \frac{1}{2} \bar{v}_y^2 = \frac{1}{2} \bar{v}_z^2 = \frac{1}{2} kT \quad (15)$$

It is important to know that the energy associated with any degree of freedom is shared equally among the molecules. For example, the energy of a diatomic molecule is shared equally among the translational, rotational, and vibrational degrees of freedom.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial q} \overline{\epsilon} = \frac{\partial \epsilon}{\partial p} = kT \quad (16)$$

It is called the equipartition theorem. From the equipartition theorem the specific heat can be derived.

$$C = \frac{\partial \bar{E}}{\partial T} \quad (17)$$

It may be immediately noted that the equipartition theorem is only valid for classical systems. For example, for a diatomic molecule at low temperatures, the vibrational energy is not shared equally among the degrees of freedom because the vibrational energy levels are quantized.

$$\frac{1}{2} (p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2) + \frac{1}{2} k (x^2 + y^2 + z^2) \quad (18)$$

It is important to note that the equipartition theorem is only valid for classical systems. For example, for a diatomic molecule at low temperatures, the vibrational energy is not shared equally among the degrees of freedom because the vibrational energy levels are quantized.

$$= C(p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2) + m c^2 \quad (19)$$

Relativistic mechanics The equipartition theorem (16) may be written

$$\frac{\partial \bar{E}}{\partial p} = kT \quad (19)$$

For a relativistic particle, the energy is given by  $E = \gamma m c^2$ , where  $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$ . The equipartition theorem then gives  $\frac{\partial \bar{E}}{\partial p} = kT$ .

$$E = \frac{1}{2} N k T \left( 1 + \frac{5}{4} \frac{kT}{m} + \dots \right) \quad (19b)$$

Electrical conductivity of metals Experimentally, the observed proportionality between the applied electric field and the current produced in a metal is consistent with kinetic procedures given an explanation of the general connection. The theory of the electrical conductivity in a metal as an ideal gas of electrons of mass  $m$  and charge  $e$  in equilibrium with the lattice is described by the Boltzmann distribution (1) or the Fermi-Dirac distribution (5). Call this distribution  $f$ . The average velocity  $\bar{v}$  is zero in the absence of an electric field. The application of an electric field  $E$  results in a drift velocity  $\bar{v}_d$ . The Boltzmann distribution is then modified by the Boltzmann transport equation

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{v} + \nabla f \cdot \mathbf{F} = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_{\text{coll}} \quad (20)$$

The collision term causes considerable difficulty in many problems. It is justified in introducing a relaxation time which may depend on  $x$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  and is defined by

$$\left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \right)_{\text{coll}} = - \frac{f - f_0}{\tau} \quad (21)$$

If  $f$  is the distribution function at thermal equilibrium, the introduction of such a relaxation time is equivalent to assuming that the distribution function  $f$  is a local equilibrium distribution. The Boltzmann transport equation (20) may be written

$$\frac{eE}{m} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = - \frac{f - f_0}{\tau} \quad (22)$$

If  $E$  is the electric field, it is assumed that  $(f - f_0)/f \ll 1$  with  $f$  very near  $f_0$ . The Boltzmann transport equation (22) may be written

$$f = f_0 - E \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial x} \quad (23)$$

The electrical conductivity is then calculated by

$$J = \int e v f d^3 v = - e^2 E \int \frac{\partial f_0}{\partial x} v^2 d^3 v \quad (24)$$

The finite temperature  $E$  in Eq. (23) does not contribute to the conductivity because it is a constant. The only contribution to the conductivity is from the linear term in  $E$ . The Boltzmann transport equation (22) may be written

In quantum theory nonideal systems in equilibrium are described in terms of the quantum partition function

$$Z_0 = \sum_b e^{-E_b/kT} = e^{-\psi/kT} \quad (6)$$

Here  $E$  indicates the energy levels of the system and  $g$  indicates the weights of the  $e$  levels. If one defines a Slater sum by

$$S(x_1, \dots, x_N) = \sum e^{-E/kT} |U(x_1, \dots, x_N)|^2 \quad (7)$$

where  $U(x_1, \dots, x_N)$  is the wave function of the state  $n$ ,  $Z_0$  may be written as an integral similar to  $Z$

$$Z_0 = \int \int d^3x_1 \dots d^3x_N S(x_1, \dots, x_N) \quad (8)$$

For the applications the energy levels and the wave functions must be known. In the evaluation of  $S$  given by Eq. (7) the symmetry character of the wave functions must be explicitly introduced. It is sometimes easier to use the grand partition function

$$Z_m = \sum_N \sum e^{(\mu N - E_N)/kT} \quad (9)$$

Here  $\mu$  is the chemical potential and  $E_N$  is the  $n$ th level of a system having  $N$  particles. The current theories of quantum statistics, as for example the hard sphere Bose gas, are for the most part concerned with questions in this area.

The only technique now available is that of the density matrix. It is possible to express certain entities which characterize transport properties, such as the conductivity tensor, in terms of the unperturbed stationary density matrix. A complete discussion of the validity of the approximations is still lacking. In addition, once the conductivity tensor is obtained in terms of the density matrix of the stationary (but still interacting) system, a problem of the same order of difficulty as the evaluation of the quantum mechanical partition function remains. If explicit expressions for the quantities in terms of the forces between atoms are desired.

**Classical examples.** Kinetic theory gave the first insight into many of the phenomena that take place in gases as well as in metals where the free (conduction) electrons can be considered as an ideal gas of electrons. The following example illustrates some of the more fundamental calculations that have been made.

**Ideal gas pressure.** A classical ideal gas is described by the Boltzmann distribution of Eq. (1) (see GAS). The constant  $A$  is given by

$$A = \frac{N}{V} \left( \frac{m\beta}{2\pi} \right)^{3/2} \quad (10)$$

where  $m$  is the mass of an individual molecule and  $V$  is the total volume of the gas. A gas exerts a force on the wall by virtue of the fact that the molecules are reflected by it. The component of momentum normal to the wall changes its sign as a consequence

of this collision. Hence if the normal velocity of the molecule is  $v_x$ , the momentum given off to the wall is  $2mv_x$ . To calculate the total force on a wall one needs the total momentum transferred to the wall per unit time. Let  $dS$  be a small section of the wall, and call  $\theta$  the angle made by the molecule's velocity vector with the normal to  $dS$  (see Fig. 1). From Eq. (1) the number of molecules that have a speed  $c = (v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2)^{1/2}$  and whose velocity vector makes an angle  $\theta$  with a given axis (call these  $c, \theta$  molecules) is

$$f(c, \theta) = 2\pi A e^{-1/2 m c^2} \sin \theta \, d\theta \, dc \quad (11)$$

The number of such molecules that in time  $dt$  will collide with  $dS$  (assuming spatial homogeneity) is given by

$$dS \, c \cos \theta \, dt \, f(c, \theta) \quad (11a)$$

From this information an interesting side result may be calculated, namely that the number of all collisions with a unit area of the wall per second is

$$2\pi A \int_0^\infty \int_0^\pi \sin \theta \cos \theta \, d\theta \int_0^\infty c^3 e^{-1/2 m c^2} \, dc \quad (12)$$

If one introduces the average speed  $\bar{c}$  as

$$\bar{c} = \frac{1}{N} \iint d^3x \, d^3v \, c \, f \quad (12a)$$

the total number of collisions may be written as  $\frac{1}{4} n \bar{c}$ . Here  $n = N/V$  is the number density. This relation is of importance in calculating the efflux of gases through orifices. Each  $(c, \theta)$  molecule contributes a momentum of  $2mc \cos \theta$  to the wall per collision. Since the pressure  $p$  is given by the force per unit area, or the total momentum transferred per unit time per unit area, one obtains for  $p$

$$p = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\pi 2mc \cos \theta \, 2\pi A c \sin \theta \, e^{-1/2 m c^2} \sin \theta \, d\theta \, dc \quad (13)$$

$$p = \frac{1}{2} n m \bar{c}^2 = (N/V) \beta^{-1} \quad (14)$$

Since it is known experimentally that  $pV = NkT$ , where  $k$  is the Boltzmann constant  $\beta = 1/kT$ , is now identified. This pressure calculation is a typical example of a kinetic theory calculation.

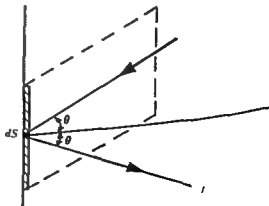


Fig. 1. Change of momentum of gas molecule on striking a wall;  $\theta$  is the angle of incidence;  $c$  is the velocity.

It is a that a relation time describ th de  
ca from a rate so near a equil bri m rate th t  
h the molecu s has m tra elled (on the a er  
age) o e m a free path the equ lib um is re  
establied Stated differe tly the no equ lib um  
state i n the a rag o e c lision per m lecu le  
rem edf mth eq lib um tate

Exp sion (28) may ow be e aluated in terms  
f the mean f ee p th as

$$V_0 = \text{per unit area} = \frac{1}{2} n m \lambda c \frac{dt}{dy}$$

From th s, th vi ty coefficient follow d ectlv

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2} n m \lambda \quad (33)$$

I troduc the mean free p th m g en by Eq  
(30) one eesth t

$$\eta = \frac{1}{3} \frac{m c}{4 \pi r^2} \quad (33b)$$

Th remarkabl r lit is th t the seco ty is in  
deed independ t f the p rs S ce

$$= \sqrt{6kT/\pi m}$$

the o ty d p d o th t mper t e but not  
n th pes e Th s m wh t uninit t result  
s on of the fir t tump h f k netic th ory  
Both pects f Eq (33) re m g d agreement  
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MECHANICS

## Kinetics (chemical)

Th bra h f phy cal hem try con rned with  
the mech n ms nd ste of chemi l ct n  
The st dy of act at on m gies of r at o  
also an unp r nt t p c n chem l k s etc.

**Reaction rate** The rate at wh ch chem cal re  
act t re ed up or at wh ch chemi l p oduct  
a f rmed is import nt t pic parti la ly i  
o g a h m try nd b chem t y wh m ny  
differ t p oduct s c n obt ned all f wh ch a  
pos lly seco d g t th rmodynam al l t on  
The p o d t u lly obt ed i determ ed by the  
lt rates f the comp t g reat n The c  
f e. kno ledg f m t n r tes i m p rta t  
in contr ll g ch m l re ts

**Rate** i n The p f t ec ta t k is u e  
f l n l t m e c t n r t at v o s c  
t r m s. I f a mple chem cal e o A  $\rightarrow$  B  
the t of react n i d ectlv p oport al t the  
n cent t n f A th prop r t n al ty t t k  
is lled th pec f r at t n r te t t Thu

$$\frac{-d}{dt} = k c_A \quad (1)$$

where  $-dc_A/dt$  is the rate of decrease in concn  
tration f A with time t The rate of ch nge will  
dec ease as A is used up and its concentratio de  
creases but the rate will always be pr po t onal to  
the concentration Thus if k has a alue of 0.01 per  
minute l of A which is p e s e t at any tim t  
will react pe minute O er long periods of time  
the concent ation will be cha ging dur ng the time  
interval and it is nec sary to teg ate the equa  
tion Thus

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t_2 - t_1} \log \frac{c_A}{c_A} \quad (2)$$

wh e  $c_A$  the c ncentration t time  $t_1$  and  $c_A$  is  
the c ncentration t time  $t_2$  Thus it is possible to  
d term n th r te co stant k f m the measu ements  
of the c ncentration of A at tw d ffe ent times  
When the ate co stant has been evaluated by ex  
perim ntal measurements or by theoret cal calcul  
t ons m s possible to calc late accu ately the con  
centrat n  $c_A$  at any later t m when it i known at  
one tum Frequently the known concentrat on  $c_A$   
i taken as the initial m ncentration start ng at zero  
time

**Order f reaction** The o d r of react n d pends  
on the e ponent of the concentration wh h deter  
mines th at of the reaction Thus in Eq (1) the  
eact n s first d I an th type f reaction  
wh ch d p nds on the collisi n of two m l cu les  
A + A  $\rightarrow$  A th rate g en by the fo mula

$$\frac{-dc_A}{dt} = k c_A^2 \quad (3)$$

S ch s ct n lled a sec nd order eact n  
If the e ction is A + B  $\rightarrow$  AB the r te of the re  
action m y be g n by the relat n

$$\frac{-dA}{dt} = \frac{-dB}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} B = k c_A c_B \quad (4)$$

The rea t on at s first o der with r pect to A  
and first de with r pect t B but the o r all re  
actio r t s id t be seco d o de Th r actio  
order i q l zo th sum f the po nt of the  
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fist ord r ction k is m ly ratio nd is i  
depend t of the u ts of ce trat on u d In a  
ce d o d e ct wh ch d p e ds n the p o d  
ct of the ce t t on the co st nt k i ludes  
te m f r the con tration on Its num i l al e  
d p d on th co ntration unt u d s ch as  
moles p liter

Wh th time terv l i l g it is excess ry t  
tegrat d formula Th s Eq (3) b come

$$k = \frac{1}{t} \frac{x}{(-x)} \quad (5)$$

nd Eq (4) m omes

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t(-b)} \log \frac{b(-x)}{a(b-x)} \quad (6)$$

In the case of Boltzmann statistics use of Eqs (1) (2) (10) and (24) gives

$$j = \frac{Ne^2\tau}{m} E \quad (25a)$$

The conductivity  $\sigma = Ne^2\tau/m$  cannot be compared with experiment unless the relaxation time  $\tau$  is known. In the Fermi case the evaluation of Eq (24) is facilitated by observing that  $\partial f_0/\partial \epsilon$  has a  $\delta$  function character. Call  $A = e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)}$  so that Eq (5) reads

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \quad (25b)$$

It is easy to show from (25b) that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \epsilon} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \approx -\delta(\epsilon - \mu) \quad (26)$$

for sufficiently low temperatures. This allows the immediate calculation of Eq (24) also for the case in which the relaxation time depends on the velocity.

**Viscosity and mean free path.** One of the early successes of kinetic theory was the explanation of the viscosity of a gas. Strictly speaking this is again a transport property and as such it should be obtained from the Boltzmann transport equation (20). It is possible however to give an elementary discussion. Consider a gas that is contained between two walls or plates the lower one ( $y = 0$ ) at rest and the upper one constrained to move with a given velocity in the  $x$  direction (see Fig. 2). A force is necessary to maintain the constant velocity of the plate. This force is given by

$$\dot{X} = \eta A \frac{dv}{dy} \quad (27)$$

Here  $dv/dy$  is the velocity gradient and  $X$  is the viscous force (also sometimes called the shear stress) on the area  $A$  which is perpendicular to the diagram ( $X$  is the component of  $\mathbf{X}$  in the  $x$  direction). Equation (27) defines  $\eta$  the viscosity.

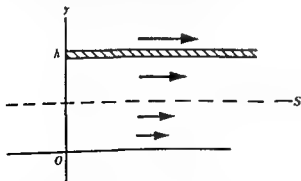


Fig. 2. Example of viscosity. The plate at  $y = h$  is moving with velocity  $v$  and the plate at  $y = 0$  is stationary. The horizontal component of velocity of the gas molecules is assumed to be zero at  $y = 0$  and  $y = h$ . Momentum must be exchanged between the plates  $S$  by the effect of component of velocity.

coefficient. The physical reason for this force stems from the fact that molecules above the surface  $S$  have a greater flow velocity than those below the surface. (This will certainly be true on the average.) Thus molecules crossing from above to below will carry a larger amount of momentum in the positive  $x$  direction than those crossing from below  $S$  upwards. Hence the net effect is a transport of momentum in the  $x$  direction across the surface. By Newton's second law this will yield a force. The computation can be carried out in this manner. Consider an area in the  $x$  plane. The number of molecules passing through per second is  $f v_x A$  where  $f$  is the distribution function. The amount of momentum transported in the  $x$  direction is (per collision)  $f v_x A m$ .

The force per unit area is the sum of these terms

$$f v_x m \quad (28)$$

For the evaluation of this sum the notion of mean free path is useful. The mean free path is the average distance traveled by a molecule between collisions and is usually designated by  $\lambda$ . To investigate this entity imagine each molecule to be a hard sphere with radius  $a$ . If a molecule moves with average speed  $\bar{c}$  it sweeps out a volume  $4\pi a^2 \bar{c} t$  in time  $t$ . If there are  $n = N/V$  molecules per unit volume the number of collisions per second is given by the collision frequency  $z$

$$z = n 4\pi a^2 \bar{c} \quad (29)$$

For a typical gas (oxygen) under standard conditions  $n = 3 \times 10^{20}$ ,  $\bar{c} = 45 \times 10^3$  cm/sec and  $a \approx 1.8 \times 10^{-8}$  cm. Hence numerically  $z \approx 5.5 \times 10^9$  collisions/sec. The average distance between collisions that is the mean free path is

$$\lambda = \frac{\bar{c} t}{n (4\pi a^2) \bar{c} t} = \frac{1}{n (4\pi a^2)} \quad (30)$$

Numerically  $\lambda \approx 8 \times 10^{-8}$  cm. This discussion is of course exceedingly crude. Making the calculation on the basis of a Boltzmann distribution gives

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} n (4\pi a^2)} \quad (30a)$$

Using similar methods it may be shown that the distribution of the mean free paths (that is the number of molecules whose mean free path lies between  $x$  and  $x + dx$ ) is

$$dN = \frac{N_0}{\lambda} e^{-N/\lambda} d\lambda \quad (31)$$

There is an interesting connection between the mean free path and the relaxation time introduced previously. It should be stressed however that this connection follows more from a qualitative discussion than from a rigorous calculation. One would guess that

$$\tau = \lambda / \bar{c} \quad (31)$$

The mean that a relaxation time describes the decay from a state so near an equilibrium state that when the molecules have travelled  $\lambda$  in the average free path the equilibrium is re-established. Stated differently, the nonequilibrium state is, on the average, one collision per molecule removed from the equilibrium state.

Expression (8) may now be evaluated in terms of the mean free path as

$$\text{Force per unit area} = \frac{1}{2} n m \bar{c} \frac{dc}{dy}$$

From this, the viscosity  $\eta$  is efficiently found directly

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2} n m \bar{c} \lambda \quad (33a)$$

Involving the mean free path  $\lambda$  given by Eq. (30) one sees that

$$\eta = \frac{1}{3} \frac{m \bar{c}}{4 \sigma^2} \quad (33b)$$

The remarkable result is that the viscosity is independent of the pressure  $p$  and the density  $\rho$ .

$$c = \sqrt{8kT/\pi m}$$

the viscosity depends on the temperature but not on the pressure. This is somewhat unintuitive. It is also of the first magnitude of kinetic theory. Both aspects of Eq. (33) are in good agreement with experiment. For too few cases  $\eta$  is independent of the pressure.  $\eta$  is also proportional to the square root of the temperature.

[McQuarrie]

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## Kinetics (chemical)

The branch of physical chemistry concerned with the mechanism and rate of chemical reactions. The study of acts at the beginning of reaction is also an important part of chemical kinetics.

**Reaction rate.** The rate at which the chemical reaction is proceeding. The rate is usually expressed in terms of the change in concentration of a reactant or product per unit time. The rate is also expressed in terms of the change in the number of molecules per unit volume per unit time. The rate is also expressed in terms of the change in the number of moles per unit volume per unit time. The rate is also expressed in terms of the change in the number of molecules per unit volume per unit time.

**Rate constant.** The proportionality constant  $k$  in the rate law. The rate constant is a function of temperature and is independent of concentration. The rate constant is also a function of the activation energy of the reaction. The rate constant is also a function of the frequency factor  $A$  and the pre-exponential factor  $p$ . The rate constant is also a function of the collision frequency  $Z$  and the steric factor  $p$ .

$$\frac{-dA}{dt} = kA \quad (1)$$

where  $-dc/dt$  is the rate of decrease in concentration of  $A$  with time  $t$ . The rate of change will decrease as  $A$  is used up and its concentration decreases, but the rate will always be proportional to the concentration. Thus if  $k$  has a value of 0.01 per minute, 1% of  $A$  which is present at any time  $t$  will react per minute. Over long periods of time the concentration will be changing during the time interval and it is necessary to integrate the equation. Thus

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t_2 - t_1} \log \frac{c_A}{c_A} \quad (2)$$

where  $c_A$  is the concentration at time  $t_1$  and  $c_A$  is the concentration at time  $t_2$ . This is possible to determine the rate constant  $k$  from the measurements of the concentration of  $A$  at two different times. When the rate constant has been evaluated by experimental measurements or by theoretical calculations it is possible to calculate accurately the concentration  $c_A$  at any later time when it is known at one time. Frequently the known concentration  $c_A$  is taken as the initial concentration at starting at zero time.

**Order of reaction.** The order of reaction depends on the exponent of the concentration which determines the rate of the reaction. Thus in Eq. (1) the reaction is first order. In another type of reaction which depends on the collision of two molecules  $A + A \rightarrow A_2$  the rate is given by the formula

$$\frac{-dc_A}{dt} = kA^2 \quad (3)$$

Such a reaction is called a second order reaction. If the reaction is  $A + B \rightarrow AB$  the rate of the reaction may be given by the relation

$$\frac{-dc_A}{dt} = \frac{-dc_B}{dt} = \frac{dc_{AB}}{dt} = k c_A c_B \quad (4)$$

The reaction rate is first order with respect to  $A$  and first order with respect to  $B$ . The overall reaction order is said to be second order. The reaction order is equal to the sum of the exponents of the concentration of all the reacting materials. In a first order reaction  $k$  is merely a ratio and is independent of the units of concentration. In a second order reaction which depends on the product of the concentrations the constant  $k$  includes a term for the concentration. Its numerical value depends on the concentration units used such as mole per liter.

When the time interval is long it is necessary to use integrated formulas. Thus Eq. (3) becomes

$$k = \frac{1}{t} \log \frac{x}{a(x-x)} \quad (5)$$

and Eq. (4) becomes

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t(b-a)} \log \frac{b(a-x)}{a(b-x)} \quad (6)$$

In the case of Boltzmann statistics use of Eq (1) (2) (10) and (24) gives

$$j = \frac{\Lambda e^2 \tau}{m} E \quad (25a)$$

The conductivity  $\sigma = Ne \tau/m$  cannot be compared with experiment unless the relaxation time  $\tau$  is known. In the Fermi case the evaluation of Eq (24) is facilitated by observing that  $\partial f_0 / \partial \epsilon$  has a  $\delta$  function character. Call  $A = e^{\epsilon}$  so that Eq (5) reads

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \quad (25b)$$

It is easy to show from (25b) that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \epsilon} \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} + 1} \approx -\delta(\epsilon - \mu) \quad (26)$$

for sufficiently low temperatures. This allows the immediate calculation of Eq (24) also for the case in which the relaxation time depends on the velocity.

**Viscosity and mean free path.** One of the early successes of kinetic theory was the explanation of the viscosity of a gas. Strictly speaking this is again a transport property and as such it should be obtained from the Boltzmann transport equation (20). It is possible however to give an elementary discussion. Consider a gas that is contained between two walls or plates, the lower one ( $y = 0$ ) at rest and the upper one constrained to move with a given velocity in the  $x$  direction (see Fig. 2). A force is necessary to maintain the constant velocity of the plate. This force is given by

$$\lambda = \eta A \frac{dv_x}{dy} \quad (27)$$

Here  $dv_x/dy$  is the velocity gradient and  $\lambda$  is the viscous force (also sometimes called the shear stress) on the area  $A$  which is perpendicular to the diagram ( $X$  is the component of  $\mathbf{v}$  in the  $x$  direction). Equation (27) defines  $\eta$  the viscosity

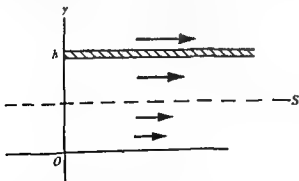


Fig. 2. Explanation of viscosity. The plate at  $y = h$  moves with velocity  $v$  and the plate at  $y = 0$  is stationary. The horizontal component of velocity of the gas molecules is from 0 at  $y = 0$  to  $v$  at  $y = h$ . Momentum must therefore be transferred across  $S$  by the vertical component of velocity.

coefficient. The physical reason for this force term from the fact that molecules above the surface  $S$  have a greater flow velocity than those below this surface. (This will certainly be true on the average.) Thus molecules crossing from above to below will carry a larger amount of momentum in the positive  $x$  direction than those crossing from below  $S$  upwards. Hence the net effect is a transport of momentum in the  $x$  direction across the surface. By Newton's second law this will yield a force. The computation can be carried out in this manner. Consider an area in the  $x$  plane. The number of molecules passing through per second is  $\int v_x A$ , where  $f$  is the distribution function. The amount of momentum transported in the  $x$  direction is (per collision)  $\int v_x A m$ .

The force per unit area is the sum of the terms

$$\int v_x m \quad (28)$$

For the evaluation of this sum the notion of mean free path is useful. The mean free path is the average distance traveled by a molecule between collisions and is usually designated by  $\lambda$ . To investigate this entity, imagine each molecule to be a hard sphere with radius  $a$ . If a molecule moves with average speed  $\bar{c}$  it sweeps out a volume  $\pi a^2 \bar{c} t$  in time  $t$ . If there are  $n = N/V$  molecules per unit volume, the number of collisions per second is given by the collision frequency

$$= n \pi a^2 \bar{c} \quad (29)$$

For a typical gas (oxygen) under standard conditions  $n = 3 \times 10^{25}$ ,  $\bar{c} = 45 \times 10^3$  cm/sec and  $a \approx 1.8 \times 10^{-8}$  cm. Hence numerically  $\nu = 5.5 \times 10^8$  collisions/sec. The average distance between collisions that is the mean free path is

$$\lambda = \frac{\bar{c} t}{n \pi a^2 \bar{c} t} = \frac{1}{n \pi a^2} \quad (30)$$

Numerically  $\lambda \approx 8 \times 10^{-8}$  cm. This discussion is of course exceedingly crude. Making the calculation on the basis of a Boltzmann distribution gives

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} n \pi a^2} \quad (30a)$$

Using similar method it may be shown that the distribution of the mean free path (that is the number of molecules whose mean free path lies between  $x$  and  $x + dx$ ) is

$$dN = \frac{N_0}{\lambda} e^{-x/\lambda} dx \quad (31)$$

There is an interesting connection between the mean free path and the relaxation time introduced previously. It should be stressed however that this connection is still somewhat from a qualitative discussion. In a more rigorous calculation one would guess that

$$= \lambda / c \quad (31a)$$

It means that a relaxation time describes the decay from a state so near an equilibrium state that the molecules have travelled (on the average) on the mean free path the equilibrium is re-established. It is deduced differently the equilibrium state is, on the average, one collision per molecule removed from the equilibrium state.

Equation (8) may now be evaluated in terms of the mean free path  $\lambda$

$$\text{Force per unit area} = \frac{1}{2} n m \lambda c \frac{d}{dt}$$

From this, the viscosity coefficient follows directly

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2} n m \lambda c \quad (33a)$$

Introducing the mean free path as given by Eq (30) one sees that

$$\eta = \frac{1}{3} \frac{m c}{4 \pi a^2} \quad (33b)$$

The remarkable result is that the viscosity is indeed independent of the pressure. Since

$$c = \sqrt{8 k T / \pi m}$$

the viscosity depends on the temperature but not on the pressure. This somewhat intuitive result was one of the first triumphs of kinetic theory. Both aspects of Eq (33) are good elements with experimental results not too low densities  $\eta$  is indeed independent of the pressure.  $\eta$  is also proportional to the square root of the temperature. [MOR]

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## Kinetics (chemical)

The branch of physical chemistry concerned with the mechanism and rates of chemical reactions. The study of action on rates of reactions is also an important topic in chemical physics.

**Reaction rate.** The rate at which chemical reactants are used up or the rate at which chemical products are formed. It is an important property particularly in the study of chemical reactions. The rate of reaction is the change in the concentration of a reactant or product per unit time. The rate of reaction is denoted by the symbol  $r$ . The rate of reaction is the change in the concentration of a reactant or product per unit time. The rate of reaction is denoted by the symbol  $r$ .

**Rate constant.** The proportionality constant  $k$  in the rate equation. The rate constant is a measure of the rate of reaction. The rate constant is denoted by the symbol  $k$ . The rate constant is a function of temperature and is independent of concentration. The rate constant is denoted by the symbol  $k$ .

$$-\frac{dA}{dt} = kA \quad (1)$$

where  $-dA/dt$  is the rate of decrease in concentration of A with time. The rate of change will decrease as A is used up and its concentration decreases but the rate will always be proportional to the concentration. Thus if  $k$  has a value of 0.01 per minute  $10^4$  of A which is present at any time  $t$  will react per minute. Over a long period of time, the concentration will be changing during the time interval and it is necessary to integrate the equation. Thus

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t_2 - t_1} \log \frac{c_A}{c_A} \quad (2)$$

where  $c_A$  the concentration at time  $t_1$  and  $c_A$  is the concentration at time  $t_2$ . Thus it is possible to determine the rate constant  $k$  from the measurements of the concentration of A at two different times. When the rate constant has been evaluated by experimental measurements or by theoretical calculations it is possible to calculate accurately the concentration  $c_A$  at any later time when it is known at one time. The known concentration  $c_A$  is taken as the initial concentration starting at zero time.

**Order of reaction.** The order of reaction depends on the exponent of the concentration which determines the rate of the reaction. Thus in Eq (1) the reaction is first order. In another type of reaction which depends on the collision of two molecules  $A + A \rightarrow A_2$  the rate is given by the formula

$$-\frac{dc_A}{dt} = k c_A^2 \quad (3)$$

Such a reaction is called a second-order reaction. If the reaction is  $A + B \rightarrow AB$  the rate of the reaction may be given by the relation

$$-\frac{d}{dt} = -\frac{dc_A}{dt} = -\frac{dc_B}{dt} = k c_A c_B \quad (4)$$

The reaction rate is first order with respect to A and first order with respect to B but the overall reaction is said to be second order. The reaction order is equal to the sum of the exponents of the concentration of all the reacting materials. In a first-order reaction  $k$  is merely a ratio and is independent of the units of concentration used. In a second-order reaction which depends on the product of the concentrations the constant  $k$  includes a term for the concentration. Its numerical value depends on the concentration unit used such as moles per liter.

When the time interval is long it is necessary to integrate the formula. The Eq (3) becomes

$$k = \frac{1}{t} \frac{x}{(a-x)} \quad (5)$$

and Eq (4) becomes

$$k = \frac{2.303}{t(a-b)} \log \frac{b(a-x)}{(b-x)} \quad (6)$$



where  $a$  is the concentration of A and  $b$  is the concentration of B at the start of the reaction when  $t = 0$  and  $x$  is the change in concentration during time  $t$ .

Third order reactions involving three substances A, B and C are known but they are rather rare. The rate of the reaction is proportional to the product of the concentrations of A, B and C.

Zero order reactions given by the formula

$$\frac{-dc_A}{dt} = k \quad (7)$$

are known. In these the rate is independent of the concentration and is constant over a long period of time. Such zero order reactions are found in photochemistry where the intensity of light rather than the concentration is the rate determining factor. They are found also in saturated solution where the concentrations of the reacting materials are kept constant by the solution of more of the solid.

If the order of a reaction is known it is a simple matter to calculate with the formulas just listed the amount of reactant remaining or the amount of product formed at any time. If the order is not known it must be evaluated from experimental data. For example in the rate expression for the reaction  $A + B$

$$\frac{-dc_A}{dt} = \frac{-dc_B}{dt} = k c_A^m c_B^n \quad (8)$$

it is necessary to evaluate the exponent  $m$  and  $n$ . Usually they will not be the whole numbers 1, 2 or 3 but rather numbers such as 1.3 which then do not give first, second or third order reactions. The reaction with fractional exponents involve several reactions which take place simultaneously.

In evaluating the exponent the data may be substituted into formulas to determine if a first, second or third order formula will agree with the experimental data. Also the order may be determined by graphing. The reaction is first order if  $\log c_A$  gives a straight line when plotted against time, second order if  $1/c$  gives a straight line and third order if  $1/c^3$  gives a straight line provided all reactants start with the same concentration. A zero-order reaction gives a horizontal line when concentration is plotted against time. The order of each reactant can be determined also by increasing its concentration and measuring the effect on the reaction rate while the concentration of all other reactants are kept constant or are present in large excess.

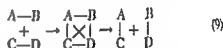
**Experimental measurements.** Measurements of reaction rate are made by determining the concentrations of reactant or product as a function of time. In a closed system samples can be withdrawn and analyzed immediately (or chilled quickly) so that the concentration does not change after the time of sampling. The analysis may be carried out by chemical means such as titration or by physical measurement of such properties as light absorption, refractive index or volume.

If there is a change in pressure of a gas, electrical conductance, volume of a solution, electrical conductance or other physical property the course of the reaction can be followed in the whole reaction vessel without withdrawing sample. If only one of the reactants or products absorbs light of a given wavelength the changing concentration may be followed by measuring the absorption of light.

In some reactions the rate is determined conveniently by passing the reacting material in a stream through the reaction chamber and determining the concentrations before and after entering the chamber. The time is estimated from the rate of flow and the volume of the chamber.

**Activation energy.** Energy must be supplied to prepare the molecules for reaction. Otherwise the reactions would take place almost instantaneously. In ordinary thermal reactions this extra energy is provided by collisions with molecules that are moving at very high velocities. Energies of about 10-100 kcal/mole are usually required to activate the molecules in reactions which proceed with measurable rates.

The activation process usually involves the weakening or breaking of a chemical bond. Thus in a typical reaction



energy is required to activate the molecule AB and CD and bring them close to each other that there is a force of attraction exhibited between all the atoms. The activated complex which results may break up in different ways for example into the product AC and BD.

Complex molecule with many atoms may be regarded as composed of many different atom pairs held together either by electrical charge or by electron pair and the energies required to loosen or break the pairs and to move the atoms around varies greatly in different chemical reactions.

If the activation energy is low there are many effective molecular collisions and the reaction is fast. If the activation energy is high only a small fraction of the molecules will be moving fast enough to give sufficient energy on collision to activate the molecule and bring about the reaction. Then the reaction is slow. The distribution of molecular velocities at a given temperature is given by the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution.

When the temperature rises the average kinetic energy of the molecules increases at a rate proportional to the absolute temperature but the number of molecules with very high velocities increase very greatly. Accordingly a chemical reaction proceeds very much more rapidly with the temperature raised. It can be estimated that the effect of high energy has a large effect on the chemical reaction in the neighborhood of room temperature will double the rate for a 10-d degree increase in temperature.

The Arrhenius equation gives the relation between rate and temperature thus

$$k = Ae^{-\Delta H_{act}/RT} \quad (10)$$

where  $k$  is the specific reaction rate constant,  $e$  is the base of natural logarithm (2.71828),  $R$  is the gas constant,  $\Delta H_{act}$  is the activation energy,  $T$  is the absolute temperature. The constant  $\Delta H_{act}$  is called the frequency factor.

At a given temperature, when the logarithm of the specific rate constant is plotted against the reciprocal of the absolute temperature, a straight line is produced. The slope of this line is multiplied by the gas constant  $R$  and the negative sign is put before it to get the activation energy. For example, if the slope of the line is  $-10000$  K, then the activation energy is  $10000 \times R$  cal/mole. The frequency factor  $A$  can be determined from the intercept of the line on the y-axis.

The Arrhenius equation can be written in the following form

$$k = \frac{RT}{Nh} e^{\Delta S_{act}/R} e^{-\Delta H_{act}/RT} \quad (11)$$

where  $\Delta S_{act}$  is the entropy of activation,  $A$  is the Arrhenius pre-exponential factor,  $6.0 \times 10^{23}$  is Planck's constant,  $h$  is Planck's constant,  $6.6 \times 10^{-27}$  erg cm is the Planck constant,  $N$  is Avogadro's number,  $6.02 \times 10^{23}$  is the Avogadro number,  $R$  is the gas constant,  $1.987$  cal/mole K is the gas constant,  $T$  is the absolute temperature,  $\Delta H_{act}$  is the activation energy,  $\Delta S_{act}$  is the entropy of activation. The prediction of reaction rates from the Arrhenius equation is based on the assumption that the reaction is a simple one and the transition state is a high energy state. The prediction of reaction rates from the Arrhenius equation is based on the assumption that the reaction is a simple one and the transition state is a high energy state.

actions that make up the complex reaction. The mechanism of a reaction is the sequence of steps which lead to the final products. The rate of a reaction is the change in concentration of a reactant or product per unit time. The order of a reaction is the sum of the powers of the concentration terms in the rate equation.

In a simple unimolecular reaction, the frequency factor  $A$  has a value of about  $10^{10}$  sec<sup>-1</sup>. If it is much larger, a bimolecular reaction is probably present (see CHEMICAL REACTION, CHEMICAL). If it is smaller, a unimolecular reaction is probably present. The frequency factor  $A$  is a measure of the probability of a reaction occurring. It is a function of the activation energy and the entropy of activation. The frequency factor  $A$  is a measure of the probability of a reaction occurring. It is a function of the activation energy and the entropy of activation.

The heat of activation is the energy barrier between the reactants and the products. It is the energy required to break the bonds in the reactants and form the bonds in the products. The heat of activation is a measure of the energy barrier between the reactants and the products.

In the estimation of the activation energy, the energy of the reactants and the energy of the products are compared. The energy of the reactants is the energy of the reactants in the ground state. The energy of the products is the energy of the products in the ground state. The difference between the energy of the reactants and the energy of the products is the heat of activation. The heat of activation is a measure of the energy barrier between the reactants and the products.

The height of the energy barrier is the energy required to break the bonds in the reactants and form the bonds in the products. The height of the energy barrier is a measure of the energy barrier between the reactants and the products.

The type of calculation for the activation energy has been attempted by a semi-empirical method proposed by Henry Eyring. The Eyring equation is a semi-empirical equation for the rate constant. It is a function of the activation energy and the entropy of activation. The Eyring equation is a semi-empirical equation for the rate constant. It is a function of the activation energy and the entropy of activation.

The Eyring equation is a semi-empirical equation for the rate constant. It is a function of the activation energy and the entropy of activation. The Eyring equation is a semi-empirical equation for the rate constant. It is a function of the activation energy and the entropy of activation.

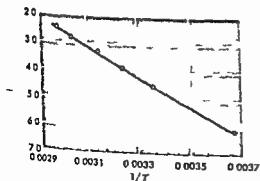


Fig 1 Plot of the Arrhenius equation. The y-axis is the logarithm of the rate constant,  $\log k$ , and the x-axis is the reciprocal of the absolute temperature,  $1/T$ . The straight line represents the linear relationship between  $\log k$  and  $1/T$ .

the energy required to break the bonds of the two reacting pairs of atoms

In endothermic bond breaking reactions a lower limit can be placed on the heat of activation. It is at least as great as the energy required to break the bond. If the rupture of the bond produces atoms or free radicals which recombine without the requirement of activation energy the activation energy is equal to the energy required to break the bond.

In exothermic reactions there is no relation between the heat evolved and the activation energy. It is thus necessary to rely on experimental data or rough estimates based on molecular structure or on the Eyring or Hirschfelder rules.

Many chemical reaction rates are greatly affected by catalysts and by light and high energy radiation.

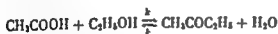
**Complex reactions** These are chemical reactions in which more than one reaction is going on at the same time. Simple first order reactions in which the rate depends directly on the concentration or second order reactions in which the rate depends on the square of the concentration can be described in simple mathematical terms. However when several reactions occur simultaneously even if they are all first or second order reactions the mathematical description often becomes very complicated. The most common types of complex reactions involve reverse reactions, side reactions and consecutive reactions.

**Reverse reactions** In this type of reaction products reunite to give the original reactants



All reactions are reversible but usually the reverse reaction is so slight that it can be neglected. Even if the reverse reaction is appreciable it can often be ignored in the early stages of the reaction before a sufficient amount of the products have accumulated.

An example of a reversible reaction is the reaction between acetic acid and ethanol to give ethyl acetate and water



At first the rate of formation of ethyl acetate is given by the expression

$$-\frac{dc_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}}}{dt} = k_1 c_{\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}} c_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}}$$

but in later stages the formula is

$$-\frac{dc_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}}}{dt} = k_1 c_{\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}} c_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}} - k_2 c_{\text{CH}_3\text{COC}_2\text{H}_5} c_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$$

where  $k_1$  is the forward reaction and  $k_2$  is the reverse reaction. It is possible to express  $k$  in terms of  $k_1$  and the equilibrium constant  $K$  and to obtain by integration a complete formula for the complex reaction

**Side reactions** When these occur there are several ways in which the starting materials can react to give different products. All are possible according to thermodynamics and the faster reaction will predominate to give the larger yields of products. In the reaction of A with both B and C



the ratio of AB to AC will depend on the relative rates. The rate expressions are

$$-\frac{dA}{dt} = k_1 c_A c_B + k_2 c_A c_C$$

$$\frac{dC_{AB}}{dt} = k_1 c_A c_B$$

and

$$\frac{dC_{AC}}{dt} = k_2 c_A c_C$$

An example of competing or side reactions is the nitration of chlorobenzene. Three different reactions take place simultaneously to give products in which the  $\text{NO}_2$  and Cl groups are adjacent in the benzene ring, where they are separated by one carbon atom or where they are separated by two carbon atoms. Most of the materials react to give the third product.

**Consecutive reactions** In this type of reaction the product of the first reaction reacts to give a second product and this in turn reacts to give a third product



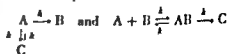
The rate at which B changes is given by the expression

$$\frac{dB}{dt} = k_1 A - k_2 B$$

where  $k_1$  is the specific reaction rate constant for the decomposition of A and  $k_2$  is the constant for the decomposition of B.

Figure 2 shows a graph in which the quantities A, B and C are each given as a function of time when  $k_1 = 0.1$ ,  $k_2 = 0.05$  and 1 mole of A is taken at the beginning of the reaction. The concentration of A decreases rapidly at first and then more slowly but always at a rate proportional to the concentration of A. It approaches zero as the time increases. The concentration of B builds up rapidly at first, goes through a maximum, then decreases and eventually approaches zero. The product C is slow in getting started but after B has accumulated C increases rapidly and finally approaches 1 mole which was the original amount of A. It is clear that the concentration of B is a complicated function of time.

There are many types of multiple complex reaction. For example



CAL HALF-LIFE INHIBITOR (CHEMICAL) KINETIC THEORY OF MATTER PHOTOCHEMISTRY POTENTIAL BARRIER

[R.D.]

Bibliography A.A. Frost and R.C. Pearson, *Kinetics and Mechanism* 1934, J. Lailler, *Chemical Kinetics* 1950

## Kinetics (classical mechanics)

The part of classical mechanics which deal with the relation between the motion of material bodies and the forces acting upon them. It is synonymous with dynamics of material bodies. See DYNAMICS.

Basic concepts Kinetic proceeds by adopting certain intuitively acceptable concepts which are associated with measurable quantities. The essential concept and the measurable quantities used for the representation are as follows:

1. Space configuration refers to the position and orientation of a body as a reference frame adopted by the observer. It is expressed quantitatively by an arbitrarily chosen set of space coordinates of which Cartesian and polar coordinates are examples. All space coordinates refer to the notion of distance in a reference frame.

2. Distance is expressed quantitatively by time measured by a clock or an impenetrable mechanism.

3. Velocity refers to the change of configuration with time and is expressed by time rate of coordinate change called velocity and time rate of velocity change called acceleration. The classical assumption that coordinates behave as analytic functions of time permits representation of velocity and acceleration as a function of time and the derivative respectively of the space coordinates with respect to time.

4. Inertia is an attribute of bodies which appears in the laws of motion. A body is inert with respect to linear motion if it is not acted upon by a net force.

5. Momentum is a vector property of a body. It is the mass multiplied by the velocity. It is a conserved quantity in a closed system.

6. Force is a vector quantity which is the cause of change of motion. It is a conserved quantity in a closed system. It is a conserved quantity in a closed system.

Newton's second law A primary principle of physics is the law of conservation of momentum.

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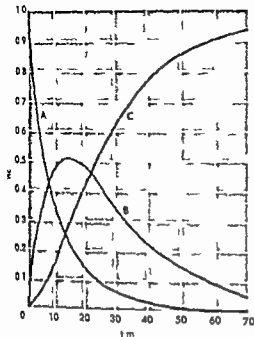


Fig. 2. A typical reaction illustrated by a first-order reaction.

All matter is made up of simple molecules. The combination of molecules to form a compound is called a chemical reaction. The rate of a reaction is the change in concentration of a reactant or product per unit time. The rate of a reaction is affected by temperature, concentration, and the presence of a catalyst. The rate of a reaction is also affected by the surface area of the reactants.

Often, the rate of a reaction is measured by the change in concentration of a reactant or product over a period of time. The rate of a reaction is also affected by the surface area of the reactants. The rate of a reaction is also affected by the presence of a catalyst. The rate of a reaction is also affected by the temperature.

The basic dynamical law set forth by Newton and known as his second law states that the time rate of change of a particle's linear momentum is proportional to and in the direction of the force applied to the particle. This statement although special in form serves as a basis for more comprehensive statements of the principle which have since appeared.

Stated analytically Newton's second law becomes the differential equation

$$\frac{d(mt)}{dt} = F \quad (1)$$

in which  $m$  represents the particle's mass  $v$  its velocity  $F$  the applied force and  $t$  the time. This equation provides a definition of force and of its units if units of mass distance and time have previously been adopted. The classical assumption of constancy of mass permits Eq. (1) to be expressed as

$$ma = F \quad (2)$$

where  $a$  represents the linear acceleration. A particle in physical space requires three cartesian coordinates  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$  to specify its position. Its linear acceleration is a vector with three cartesian components, the second time derivatives of  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ . Equation (2) therefore equates two vectors requiring equality of their components expressed in detail by

$$m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} = F_x \quad (3a)$$

$$m \frac{d^2y}{dt^2} = F_y \quad (3b)$$

$$m \frac{d^2z}{dt^2} = F_z \quad (3c)$$

The three are the Newtonian equations of motion of an unconstrained particle in space. If the three force components  $F_x$ ,  $F_y$ , and  $F_z$  are expressed as functions of the coordinate and time the dependence of each coordinate upon the time is implied and can in favorable cases be found as a solution of the equations of motion in the form

$$x = x(t) \quad y = y(t) \quad z = z(t)$$

The primary objective of kinetic is achieved in the discovery of such functions.

**One dimensional particle motion.** The motion of a particle which remains in the  $x$  axis with respect to a constraint or initial condition is determined by Eq. (3a) alone while the time is implied by the value of  $y$  and  $z$ . Such one dimensional dynamical problems provide an attractive example for introduction to the subject. Examples are the motion of a body falling vertically under the influence of gravity and a linear harmonic motion.

**Two dimensional particle motion.** The motion of a particle remaining in the plane of the  $x$  and  $y$  axes is determined by Eqs. (3a and b) from which

the two dimensional problems are readily tractable and include many of physical interest such as the motion of a projectile (exterior ballistics) and of a body attracted toward a central point as in planetary motion. Solution of a two dimensional problem is frequently simplified by change of variables which reduce it to a pair of one dimensional problems.

**Three dimensional particle motion.** All three equations of motion (3a, b, and c) apply to an unconstrained particle in space. Complete solutions are possible only when the functions expressing force components are relatively simple in character. Fortunately many of the solvable cases correspond to important physical examples in which simplicity of the forces allows separation into one and two dimensional motion. Three dimensional projectile motion without friction is an example.

**Newton's third law.** The behavior of a system composed of two or more interacting particles is treated by Newtonian dynamics augmented by Newton's third law of motion which states that when two bodies interact the forces they exert on one another are equal and oppositely directed. The important laws of momentum and energy conservation are derivable for such a system (the latter only for forces of special type) and useful in solution of problems. The equations of motion for systems of more than two interacting particles in space are mathematically intractable in the absence of geometrical constraints or special initial conditions but assumptions approximating the physical situation permit solution of many problems of physical interest. The principles of particle dynamics are transferred to extended bodies by regarding them as systems of particles subject to specified mutual constraint and mutual force. See RIGID BODY DYNAMICS; see also ACCELERATION; BALLISTICS; EXTERIOR FORCE; GRAVITATION; HARMONIC MOTION; MASS; MOMENTUM; ORBITAL MOTION; VELOCITY.

[RAT]  
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## King snake

Any of several species of the genus *Lampropeltis* some of which occur in the United States. This is a group of mostly medium to moderate sized snakes all of which are constrictors and are separated into a distinct group by a common scale pattern. However, the species are highly diversified in color. It is known that *L. gettys* of the southern United States has been introduced to the United States for biological control of the cotton boll weevil. It is marked with a series of black and white bands. It is a species of the genus *Lampropeltis*. Other species are banded or spotted in gray with black and white. The milk snake *L. elapsa* is a highly distinctive species.

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[ J D E ]

**Kingbird**

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 5 FLYC TCHER PASSERIFORMES

[ J D B ]

Kingfisher

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See CORACIIFORMES

[JOB]

### Kinglet

Any one of the species of small songbird in the family Sylviidae the Old World warbler. Two species occur in North America. Expects for the hummingbird, these are the most of all North



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[J D B]

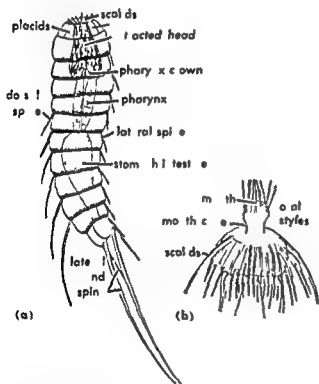
[ J D B ]

## Kinorhyncha

A class of the phylum Achelminthes consisting of superficially segmented microscopic marine animals lacking external ciliation. All members of the class are benthonic, called because they generally dwell on mud bottoms in shallow water in the littoral zone.

Three suborders are generally recognized: Cyclophagae, Conchorhagae, and Homalorhagae.

The body is completely enclosed in a transparent cuticle secreted by an underlying epidermis. As is the case among the Nematoda, the cuticle is periodically molted during growth. Three major regions of the body are recognizable: head, neck, and a jointed trunk. The apparent segments of the body are termed zonites; the head and neck each consist of one zonite. Except for one genus in which the trunk has 12 zonites, the usual number is 11.



Echinodonta sp., a cyclophagid. (a) Whole body. (b) Head. (After L. H. Hyman, *The Invertebrates of J. McGraw-Hill*, 1951).

The head is completely retractile. When protruded it bears 5-7 circles of spines called scolids.

The neck is covered by a varying number of large plates called placids. Only among the Cyclophagae do the placids cover the end of the body when the head is withdrawn. Among the Conchorhagae the closing apparatus consists of a pair of lateral plates on the third zonite, while in the Homalorhagae it consists of a single dorsal plate and three ventral plates on the third zonite.

A pair of ventral atheric tubes occurs on either the third or fourth zonite. Each of these tubes usually bears a pair of

terminal zonites may bear in addition a pair of large movable lateral spines.

The musculature is segmentally arranged. There are two pairs of longitudinal muscle bands, a dorsal lateral and a ventrolateral. Anteriorly these form the retractors of the head. Protraction of the head is accomplished by contraction of the ring muscles of the first two zonites and the paired dorsoventral muscle bands in the trunk zonites.

Locomotion is accomplished in the following manner: the head is protruded and the surface gripped by the calid. The trunk is then advanced by contraction of the longitudinal muscles and the head is retracted. Repetition of this sequence results in creeping locomotion.

The nervous system consists of a brain which encircles the anterior end of the pharynx, a ventral ganglionated cord, and in addition ganglion cells in each zonite are located in the lateral and dorsal epidermal chords.

The mouth is terminally located on the mouth cone which encloses a short buccal cavity. Posterior to the buccal cavity is a muscular pharynx. The pharynx is similar to that of the Nematoda and Gastrotricha but differs in being lined by a syncytial epithelium. The pharynx is followed by a short slender esophagus whose epithelial lining is continuous with that of the pharynx. The stomach intestine is a straight simple tube covered internally by a loose network of muscle fibers. The short endgut is separated from the stomach intestine by a pincher. A second more posterior pincher is also present. The anus is terminal.

The fluid-filled body cavity between the digestive tract and the epidermis is unlined and is presumably a pseudocoel or false coelom.

A single pair of protonephridial excretory organs is present in the tenth zonite. The flame bulbs are multinucleate and generally each contain a single long flagellum. Among the Homalorhagae a second short flagellum is present. The protonephridial canal which leads to nephridiopores on the eleventh zonite contain living flagella. The pores consist of sieve plates.

The Kinorhyncha are dioecious. In each sex there is one pair of gonads. The genital pores are located on the thirteenth zonite. The ovary contains both ova and nutritive cells. A short oviduct extends from the posterior end of each ovary to the genital pore. The male genital pore is armed with two or three penial picules which may serve as a copulatory apparatus.

The early embryology of the Kinorhyncha is unknown. In the Cyclophagae the egg hatches into a minute larva which lacks external evidence of zonites, head plates, pharynx or anus. The larva passes through several successive stages separated by moults during which the number of zonites increases and a fully developed adult is attained. Among the Homalorhagae the first larva has 7 zonites and is in general a more advanced larva than that of the Cyclophagae. The development of the Conchorhagae is unknown. See A. HELMINTHES.

## Kirchhoff's laws of electric circuits

Fundamental natural laws dealing with the relations of currents at junction and the voltages round a loop. These laws are commonly used in the analysis and solution of networks. They may be used directly to solve circuit problems, and they form the basis for network theorems used with more complex networks. Many years of experience have proved the correctness of these laws.

In the solution of circuit problems it is necessary to identify the specific physical principles involved in the problem and on the basis of them to write equations expressing the relations among the knowns. Physically the analysis of networks is based on Ohm's law giving the branch equations, Kirchhoff's voltage law giving the loop voltage equations, and Kirchhoff's current law giving the nodal current equations. Mathematically a network may be solved when it is possible to set up a number of independent equations equal to the number of unknowns. See CIRCUIT ELECTRIC NETWORK THEORY ELECTRICAL.

When writing the independent equations a current direction and voltage polarity may be chosen arbitrarily. If the equations are written with due regard for these arbitrary choices the algebraic signs of current and voltage will take care of themselves.

**Kirchhoff's voltage law** One way of stating Kirchhoff's voltage law: At any instant of time the algebraic sum of the voltages is equal to the algebraic sum of the voltage drops both being taken in the same direction round the closed loop.

The application of this law may be illustrated in the circuit of Fig. 1. First, it is desirable to understand the significance of a voltage rise and a voltage drop in relation to the current arrow. The following definitions will be stated by Fig. 1.

A voltage rise is an increase in potential energy of a charge moving in the direction of the current arrow with the polarity from minus to plus. Thus  $E = \text{voltage rise}$ .

A voltage drop is a decrease in potential energy of a charge moving in the direction of the current arrow with the polarity from plus to minus. Thus  $iR = \text{voltage drop}$ .

The application of Kirchhoff's voltage law gives the loop voltage equation

$$E = iR + iR = R_1 i + R_2 i$$

In the network of Fig. 2 the voltage rises have the same frequency. The positive signs for the branch currents  $i_1$  and  $i_2$  are chosen arbitrarily. A voltage rise is an increase in potential energy of a charge moving in the direction of the current arrow with the polarity from minus to plus. Thus  $E = \text{voltage rise}$ .

The loop voltage equation obtained by applying Kirchhoff's voltage law to each loop separately

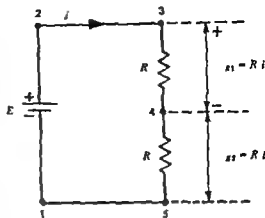


Fig. 1

Using instantaneous branch currents

$$e_1 = Ri + L \frac{di}{dt}$$

$$e_2 = \frac{1}{C} \int i_C dt + L \frac{di}{dt}$$

Using instantaneous loop current

$$e_1 = Ri + L \frac{d(i_1 + i_2)}{dt}$$

$$e_2 = \frac{1}{C} \int i_2 dt + L \frac{d(i_1 + i_2)}{dt}$$

Using phasor branch current

$$E_1 = Ri + j\omega LI$$

$$E_2 = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} I_C + j\omega LI$$

Using phasor loop currents

$$E_1 = Ri + j\omega L(I_1 + I_2)$$

$$E_2 = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} I_2 + j\omega L(I_1 + I_2)$$

**Kirchhoff's current law** Kirchhoff's current law may be expressed as follows: At any given instant the sum of the instantaneous values of all the currents flowing toward a point equals the sum of the instantaneous values of all the currents flowing away from that point.

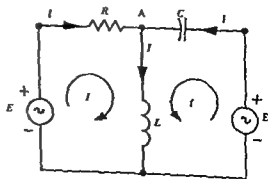


Fig. 2

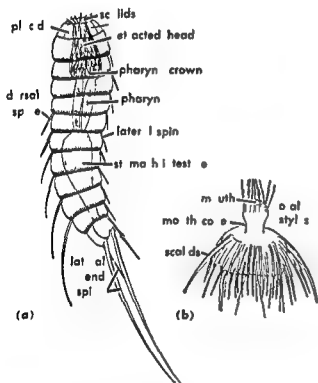


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*Echinodrella* sp., a cyclorhagous kinorhynch. (a) Side view. (b) Head. (After L. H. Hyman, *The Invertebrates*, 3rd ed., J. M. Graw-Hill, 1951).

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The neck is covered by a varying number of large plates called placids. Only among the Cyclorhagae do the placids close over the end of the body when the head is withdrawn. Among the Conchorhagae, the closing apparatus consists of a pair of lateral plates on the third zonite, while in the Homalorhagae it consists of a single dorsal plate and three ventral plates on the third zonite.

A pair of ventral adhesive tubes occurs on either the third or fourth zonite. Each of the remaining trunk zonites usually bears a pair of lateral spines and a single dorsal spine. The

terminal zonite may bear in addition a pair of large movable lateral spines.

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### Kirchhoff's laws of electric circuits

For many natural laws deal with the relationship between currents and voltages around a loop these laws are commonly used in the analysis and solution of network. They may be used directly to solve circuit problems and they form the basis for network theorems used with more complex networks. Many years of experience have proved the correctness of these laws.

In the solution of circuit problems it is necessary to identify the specific physical principles involved in the problem and on the basis of them to write equations expressing the relations among the knowns. Physically analyze the analysis of networks based on Ohm's law, Kirchhoff's voltage law, Kirchhoff's current law, and the node-voltage equations. Mathematically a network may be solved when it is possible to set up a number of independent equations equal to the number of unknowns. See CIRCUIT ELECTRIC NETWORK THEORY ELECTRICAL.

When writing the independent equations current direction and sign polarity may be chosen arbitrarily. If the equations are written with due regard to these arbitrary choices the algebraic sign of current and voltage will take care of themselves.

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Kirchhoff's voltage law: Ate han tant time  
the algebraic sum of the voltage is equal to  
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The applicability of this law may be illustrated with the use of Fig 1. First, it is desirable to determine the significance of a weight and biased probability in the present row. The following definition is illustrated by Fig 1.

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The fifteenth column is the first column of the eighth matrix, and the sixteenth column is the second column of the eighth matrix. The seventeenth column is the first column of the ninth matrix, and the eighteenth column is the second column of the ninth matrix. The nineteenth column is the first column of the tenth matrix, and the twentieth column is the second column of the tenth matrix. The twenty-first column is the first column of the eleventh matrix, and the twenty-second column is the second column of the eleventh matrix. The twenty-third column is the first column of the twelfth matrix, and the twenty-fourth column is the second column of the twelfth matrix. The twenty-fifth column is the first column of the thirteenth matrix, and the twenty-sixth column is the second column of the thirteenth matrix. The twenty-seventh column is the first column of the fourteenth matrix, and the twenty-eighth column is the second column of the fourteenth matrix. The twenty-ninth column is the first column of the fifteenth matrix, and the thirtieth column is the second column of the fifteenth matrix. The thirty-first column is the first column of the sixteenth matrix, and the thirty-second column is the second column of the sixteenth matrix. The thirty-third column is the first column of the seventeenth matrix, and the thirty-fourth column is the second column of the seventeenth matrix. The thirty-fifth column is the first column of the eighteenth matrix, and the thirty-sixth column is the second column of the eighteenth matrix. The thirty-seventh column is the first column of the nineteenth matrix, and the thirty-eighth column is the second column of the nineteenth matrix. The thirty-ninth column is the first column of the twentieth matrix, and the fortieth column is the second column of the twentieth matrix. The forty-first column is the first column of the twenty-first matrix, and the forty-second column is the second column of the twenty-first matrix. The forty-third column is the first column of the twenty-second matrix, and the forty-fourth column is the second column of the twenty-second matrix. The forty-fifth column is the first column of the twenty-third matrix, and the forty-sixth column is the second column of the twenty-third matrix. The forty-seventh column is the first column of the twenty-fourth matrix, and the forty-eighth column is the second column of the twenty-fourth matrix. The forty-ninth column is the first column of the twenty-fifth matrix, and the fiftieth column is the second column of the twenty-fifth matrix. The fifty-first column is the first column of the twenty-sixth matrix, and the fifty-second column is the second column of the twenty-sixth matrix. The fifty-third column is the first column of the twenty-seventh matrix, and the fifty-fourth column is the second column of the twenty-seventh matrix. The fifty-fifth column is the first column of the twenty-eighth matrix, and the fifty-sixth column is the second column of the twenty-eighth matrix. The fifty-seventh column is the first column of the twenty-ninth matrix, and the fifty-eighth column is the second column of the twenty-ninth matrix. The fifty-ninth column is the first column of the thirtieth matrix, and the sixtieth column is the second column of the thirtieth matrix. The sixty-first column is the first column of the thirty-first matrix, and the sixty-second column is the second column of the thirty-first matrix. The sixty-third column is the first column of the thirty-second matrix, and the sixty-fourth column is the second column of the thirty-second matrix. The sixty-fifth column is the first column of the thirty-third matrix, and the sixty-sixth column is the second column of the thirty-third matrix. The sixty-seventh column is the first column of the thirty-fourth matrix, and the sixty-eighth column is the second column of the thirty-fourth matrix. The sixty-ninth column is the first column of the thirty-fifth matrix, and the seventieth column is the second column of the thirty-fifth matrix. The seventy-first column is the first column of the thirty-sixth matrix, and the seventy-second column is the second column of the thirty-sixth matrix. The seventy-third column is the first column of the thirty-seventh matrix, and the seventy-fourth column is the second column of the thirty-seventh matrix. The seventy-fifth column is the first column of the thirty-eighth matrix, and the seventy-sixth column is the second column of the thirty-eighth matrix. The seventy-seventh column is the first column of the thirty-ninth matrix, and the seventy-eighth column is the second column of the thirty-ninth matrix. The seventy-ninth column is the first column of the fortieth matrix, and the eightieth column is the second column of the fortieth matrix. The eighty-first column is the first column of the forty-first matrix, and the eighty-second column is the second column of the forty-first matrix. The eighty-third column is the first column of the forty-second matrix, and the eighty-fourth column is the second column of the forty-second matrix. The eighty-fifth column is the first column of the forty-third matrix, and the eighty-sixth column is the second column of the forty-third matrix. The eighty-seventh column is the first column of the forty-fourth matrix, and the eighty-eighth column is the second column of the forty-fourth matrix. The eighty-ninth column is the first column of the forty-fifth matrix, and the ninetieth column is the second column of the forty-fifth matrix. The ninety-first column is the first column of the forty-sixth matrix, and the ninety-second column is the second column of the forty-sixth matrix. The ninety-third column is the first column of the forty-seventh matrix, and the ninety-fourth column is the second column of the forty-seventh matrix. The ninety-fifth column is the first column of the forty-eighth matrix, and the ninety-sixth column is the second column of the forty-eighth matrix. The ninety-seventh column is the first column of the forty-ninth matrix, and the ninety-eighth column is the second column of the forty-ninth matrix. The ninety-ninth column is the first column of the fiftieth matrix, and the hundredth column is the second column of the fiftieth matrix.

3 t 4 t h d r e t i o f t e c u r r e n t r r w t h  
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 l t a d r o p f r m 3 t 4

The ppl at n i Kt hhh ff's ltage law g s  
the loop olt g q t n

$$E = \quad + v \quad = R \quad + R$$

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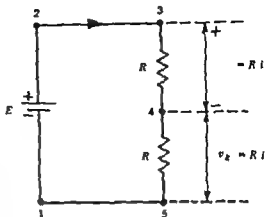


Fig. 1

Use of instantaneous branch currents

$$e_1 = R_1 + L \frac{di_L}{dt}$$

$$e_1 = \frac{1}{C} \int i_C dt + L \frac{di_L}{dt}$$

### Using instantaneous loop current

$$e_1 = Ri_1 + L \frac{d(i_1 + i_2)}{dt}$$

$$e_1 = \frac{1}{C} \int i_1 dt + L \frac{d(i_2 + i_1)}{dt}$$

### Using phasor branch currents

$$E_s = RI_R + j\omega LI_L$$

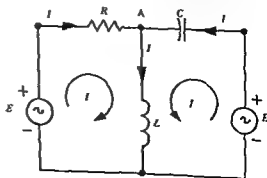
$$E_1 = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} I_C + j \omega L I_L$$

### Using phasor loop currents

$$E = RI_1 + j\omega L(I_1 + I_2)$$

$$E_2 = -j \frac{1}{\omega C} I + j\omega L(I_1 + I_2)$$

Kirchhoff's current law K r h h f's current law  
may be pres ed a f l l w At ny g enista t  
the m f the int t an o val es f all the cur  
ents flowing t w d p nt is equal to the sum of  
th tant co s al es of all the curte t flowi g  
way f me the pont.

**Fe 2**

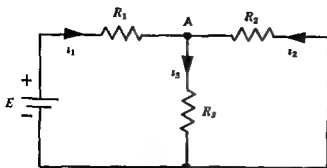


Fig 3

The application of this law may be illustrated with the circuit in Fig 3 At node  $A$

$$i_1 = i_2 + i_3$$

The current equations at node  $A$  in Fig 2 can be written using instantaneous branch currents or phasor branch currents

Using instantaneous branch currents

$$i_R + i_C = i_L$$

Using phasor branch currents

$$I_R + I_C = I_L$$

[K Y T]

## Kissing bug

A name sometimes limited to a single species *Reduvius personatus* but usually applied to any of several members of the family Reduviidae order Hemiptera. They are also called assassin bugs, cone nose bugs, or big bedbugs. Several of the species may be found at times in houses and may inflict very painful bites. They eat other insects. Several species are known to be vectors for the trypanosome parasite that causes Chagas disease in South America and others are suspected as vectors for kala azar in India. See CHAGAS DISEASE; HEMIPTERA; LEISHMANIASIS [J D B]

## Kite

A tethered flying device that supports itself and the cable that connects it to the ground by means of the aerodynamic forces created by the relative motion of the wind. This relative wind may arise merely from the natural motions of the air or may be caused by towing the kite through the agency of its connecting cable.

Kites take many forms; the bow and box kites shown in the drawing are common in the United States. In many countries, particularly in Asia, kites are frequently used in rituals and festivals; their bizarre forms and shapes are traditional, some having been developed centuries ago.

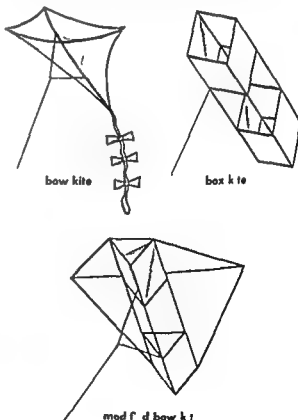
The lifting force of all kites is produced by deflecting the air downward; the resulting change in momentum producing an upward force. To be successful a kite must have an extremely low wing loading (weight/area) so that it may fly even on days when the wind velocity is not high. It must be

completely stable since the only control available to the operator are the length of cable and the rate at which it is taken in or let out. Efficient design requires that its lift-to-drag ratio be as high as possible.

Experiments on the possible application of efficient aircraft-type lifting surfaces in which most of the lift arises from the low pressures created by the air flowing over the upper surface have shown them to be too sensitive to changes in wind force and direction. Under normal atmospheric conditions the use of this type of lifting surface results in a kite that behaves in a violent and unpredictable manner. For this reason the higher drag associated with a surface from which the flow has separated is tolerated, and the majority of the lifting force is obtained from pressure on the lower surface because stalled surfaces are much less sensitive to wind changes.

Both the lift-to-drag ratio and the stability of the kite are functions of the length of cable. The more cable released, the more drag created. This combined with the increase in weight being supported causes the kite to sag off downwind, reducing the flight angle, which is the angle formed between the horizontal and a line passing through the kite and the operator.

Most kites with a properly located cable pivot point generally slightly ahead of the center of gravity demonstrate longitudinal stability. Lateral and directional instabilities generally couple to produce violent motions. The longer the cable, the more the motions are damped. Lateral and direc-



Common forms of kite



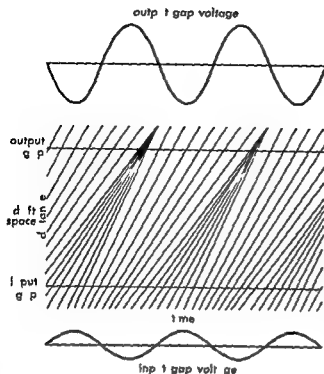


Fig 2 Distance-time (Applegate) diagram for a klystron illustrating the bunching action in a drift space

the drift tube and the abscissa being proportional to time. The curve for a given electron is a straight line in the field-free drift space, the slope of the line being proportional to the velocity at entrance. Figure 2 shows a number of such lines, each for a different electron entering at a different time and so with a different velocity depending upon the phase of the rf wave across the input gap at the time that electron passed through. The diagram demonstrates how the faster electrons (greater slopes) catch up with the slower ones (smaller slopes). At some distance such as  $A$  marked by the dotted line, definite bunches are formed so that an output circuit might be placed for induction of the

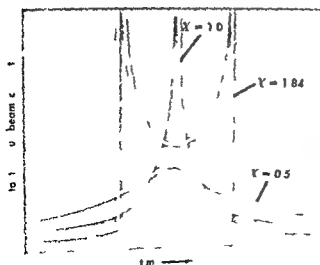


Fig 3 Wave shapes of current versus time for an idealized klystron neglecting space charge.  $X$  indicates the degree of bunching parameter and indicates the degree of bunching

desired output. Figure 3 shows pictures of the wave shape of current at various positions in the drift space for an idealized model as above. It must be noted that the current wave shape is rich in harmonics.

The transfer admittance (analogous to the transconductance of a triode) of the idealized two-gap klystron is given by

$$y_m = \frac{j\theta I_0}{2V_0} e^{-j\theta} \left[ \frac{J_1 \left( \frac{\theta V_1}{2V_0} \right)}{\left( \frac{\theta V_1}{4V_0} \right)} \right] \quad (1)$$

where  $V_1$  is the effective ac gap voltage,  $J_1$  a Bessel function of order one,  $\theta$  is the transit angle in drift space in radians,  $I_0$  is the dc beam current and  $V_0$  is the dc beam voltage. This transadmittance is ordinarily low compared with the transconductance of triodes and tetrodes, so a high impedance is required in the output circuit. Usually a cavity type circuit. As input gap loading is small, the input circuit is usually a similar high impedance cavity circuit. Both of these usually have a high quality factor  $Q$  which represents the ratio of energy stored to that dissipated per cycle, leading to a relatively narrow bandwidth. The value of transadmittance given by Eq. (1) may be decreased by space charge effects in high density electron beams. The effects cause both a longitudinal and transverse debunching of electrons. Finite transit time across input and output gaps or the use of gridless gaps further decreases the transadmittance by the introduction of gap factors less than unity in the equation. These latter effects also decrease the value of gap impedance so that smaller power gains are obtained.

**Circuit.** The resonant circuit used in both the input and output gaps is normally of the resonant cavity type (see CAVITY RESONATOR). Because of the desirability of keeping gap transit time to a low value, the cavities are normally axially symmetric with a small gap in the vicinity of the axis where the beam passes. Coupling from the cavity may be by loops, probes, or tubes with the first of these most common.

A given resonant mode of the cavity resonator may be represented by three parameters:

$f$  = resonant frequency

$Q$  = quality factor =  $2\pi f \times \frac{\text{energy stored}}{\text{average power loss}}$

$R_A$  = maximum shunt resistance across gap at resonance

For the output cavity which is coupled to a useful load, the loaded  $Q_L$  becomes an important fourth parameter. The  $Q_L$  is also related to the bandwidth of the circuit  $\Delta f$  between half power point

$$Q = \frac{f_0}{\Delta f} \quad (2)$$



gap. The bunching action in this case takes place not in a field free drift region but in the retarding field region between the cavity and the repeller, the latter being at a negative dc potential. In this retarding region the fast electrons penetrate farther than the slow ones so that there may be bunching when electrons are returned to the cavity as shown by the Applegate diagram or distance time plot in Fig. 7. If the phase of the returned bunches is correct the current induced in the cavity reinforces the original voltage building up an oscillation until nonlinear effects produce a limiting action.

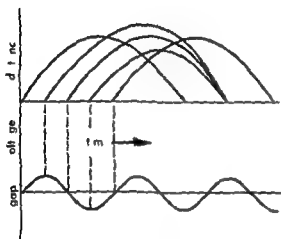


Fig. 7 Distance time (Applegate) diagram for a reflex klystron demonstrating the condition for oscillation.

The correct phase for oscillation is found to result when the time of transit  $\theta$  (out and back) of the average velocity electron represents an integral number of cycles  $N$  plus one fourth:

$$\theta = (N + \frac{1}{4})2\pi \quad (6)$$

There are different electronic modes corresponding to the number of the integer  $N$ . About each value of  $N$  oscillation will continue for a small region with variation of transit angle. A typical result of varying repeller voltage is shown in Fig. 8. The

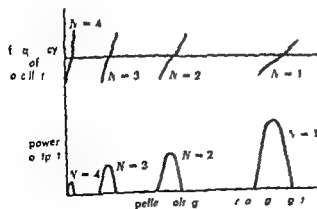


Fig. 8 Frequency and power output versus repeller voltage for a typical reflex klystron demonstrating various electronic modes of oscillation.

mode with lowest  $N$  is at the highest value of (negative) repeller voltage and is the broadest mode. It may or may not be the strongest mode depending upon the strength of coupling to the load but if not the adjacent one will be the strongest and higher order modes (lower values of repeller voltage) will decrease in strength. The total tuning range is nearly the same in all modes so the tuning rate in megacycles per volt is greater in the higher order narrower modes.

If electrons are allowed to make more than one transit a hysteresis effect may be observed in that different tuning curves are obtained for increasing or decreasing repeller voltage in a given mode. The careful design can eliminate this possibility in tubes for which it would be undesirable. The sketch of Fig. 6 indicates the design for collection of electrons after one transit.

Reflex klystrons following these basic principles have been built for frequencies from 500 to 15,000 Mc. [J. R. WH.]

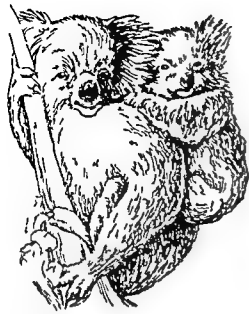
**Bibliography** D. R. Hamilton, J. K. Knipp and J. B. H. Kuper, *Klystrons and Microwave Triodes*, 1948. A. E. Harrison, *Klystron Tubes*, 1941. J. R. Pierce and W. G. Shepherd, *Reflex Oscillators*, *Bell System Tech. J.* 26, 460-681, 1941. R. H. Varian and S. F. Varian, *A high frequency oscillator and amplifier*, *J. Appl. Phys.* 10, 313-327, 1939. D. L. Webster, *Cathode ray bunching*, *J. Appl. Phys.* 10, 501-508, 1939.

## Knudsen number

In fluid mechanics the ratio  $l/L$  of the mean free path length  $l$  of the molecules of the fluid to a characteristic length  $L$  of the structure in the fluid stream. When the mean free path of the fluid particles is short relative to the size of the object being considered the fluid can be treated as a continuum (see FIELD THEORY, CLASSICAL GAS DYNAMICS). If the path length between molecular encounters is comparable to or larger than a significant dimension of the flow region the gas must be treated as consisting of discrete particles (see STATISTICAL MECHANICS, SUPERFLOID DYNAMICS). The usual classifications of flow according to Knudsen number are as follows: for  $l/L \leq 0.01$  the flow can be dealt with by the method of gas dynamics; for  $l/L \sim 1$  the behavior is termed slip flow; for  $l/L \geq 10$  the behavior is termed free molecular flow or rarified gas dynamics. [F. H. R.]

## Koala

An arboreal marsupial *Phascolarctos cinereus* found in the eucalyptus forests of Australia. It is sometimes called the native bear koala bear or teddy bear and along with the kangaroo has become a symbol of Australia. It is gray above and white below. The adult is about 3 ft long. It feeds only every other year and the single offspring rides on its mother's back until it is about a year old. Another marsupial, the young are born after a short gestation period and are quite

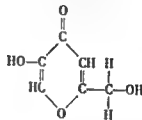


after planting. A common cooked vegetable in Europe especially Germany kohlrabi is of minor importance in the United States. See CABBAGE. PA  
PAVIALES TURNIP VEGETABLE CROPS

[H J C.]

## Kojic acid

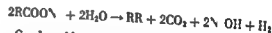
An organic acid 5-hydroxy-2-hydroxymethylpyrrole which has been produced in an experimental basis by fermentation. There is a patent in England for its use as a skin treatment. The compound has the following structural formula:



Several species of filamentous fungi of the genus *Aspergillus* can produce the near-xylose type of compound. The *Aspergillus* species used for the production of kojic acid is *Aspergillus glaucus*. The yield of kojic acid is 50-65% of glucose utilized. A medium containing 1% glucose and 10-25% commercial glucose is adjusted to pH 18-20. The pH of the medium is critical. The medium is inoculated with the mycelium of the mold and incubated for 5 days. The growth is good and the yield is high. The alcohol is removed by distillation. The product is purified by recrystallization. The yield is 10-15% of the glucose used. See INDUSTRIAL MICROBIOLOGY [J W R.]

## Kolbe hydrocarbon synthesis

The production of alkanes by the electrolysis of a water-soluble salt of a carboxylic acid. The electrolysis is carried out in a cell with a cathode of lead or silver and an anode of platinum. The electrolyte is a solution of the salt in water. The reaction is:



Good yields of alkanes are obtained with straight-chain alkanes containing 5-18 carbon atoms. Alkanes with branched chains are also obtained. The reaction is named after the chemist R. M. Kolbe. See ALKANE [L S.]

## Krebs cycle

A sequence of enzymatic reactions that lead to the oxidation of metabolites from any organic compound. The cycle is named after the biochemist H. A. Krebs. The cycle consists of the following reactions:

K. I. F. M. E. L. P. M. F. I. D. B. K. F. N. I. I. H. S. I. R. Y. M. G. -H. I. 1949)

small and simple and multiple the development of the food of the kalamand pentalythly for species of cryptic species EUCALYPTUS MARSUPIA

**Kohlrabi**  
A cool vegetable: crucifer (Brassicaceae) of northern Europe. It is a variety of the cabbage. The plant is a biennial. The leaves are large and deeply lobed. The root is a thick, elongated tuber. The root is eaten raw or cooked. The root is a good source of vitamin C. The root is also a good source of fiber. The root is a good source of potassium. The root is a good source of calcium. The root is a good source of iron. The root is a good source of zinc. The root is a good source of copper. The root is a good source of manganese. The root is a good source of selenium. The root is a good source of chromium. The root is a good source of cobalt. The root is a good source of nickel. The root is a good source of molybdenum. The root is a good source of vanadium. The root is a good source of niobium. The root is a good source of tantalum. The root is a good source of tin. The root is a good source of antimony. The root is a good source of tellurium. The root is a good source of selenium. The root is a good source of chromium. The root is a good source of cobalt. The root is a good source of nickel. The root is a good source of molybdenum. The root is a good source of vanadium. The root is a good source of niobium. The root is a good source of tantalum. The root is a good source of tin. The root is a good source of antimony. The root is a good source of tellurium.



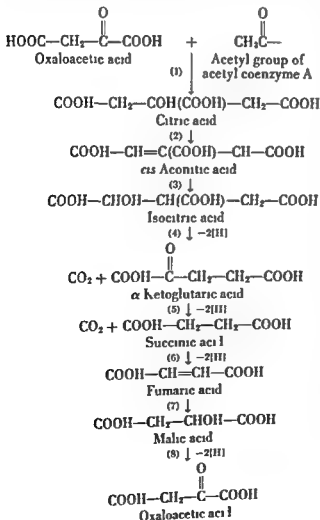
K. I. B. I. (F. M. L. H. B. I. Y. D. Th. S. I. D. D. Cy. L. O. P. A. I. H. R. I. C. H. I. 2 M. M. I. 1937)





an important metabolic intermediate derived from a variety of substrates can be oxidized to two molecules of  $\text{CO}_2$ . In aerobic metabolism two molecules of oxygen are used for this oxidation. Organic acids containing four, five and six carbons are formed in the course of the oxidation. These are consumed and regenerated continually through the operation of the entire sequence. Hence this oxidative pathway is a catalytic mechanism which operates in a cyclic manner and is known as the citric acid cycle because this tricarboxylic acid is one of the metabolic intermediates. The cycle is also named after H. A. Krebs who recognized its functional role. See METABOLISM.

There are four oxidative steps in the cycle. In each of the two atoms of hydrogen or two protons and two electrons are removed from the substrate. In aerobic respiration the electrons are transferred to molecular oxygen through the cytochrome system of iron porphyrin enzymes. Energy rich phosphate bonds in the form of adenosinetriphosphate (ATP) are generated in the course of electron transport which therefore serves as the major source of energy for cellular metabolism. Beside serving as a means for the complete or terminal oxidation of organic substrates which can be converted to acetyl fragments the reactions of the



Krebs cycle are used by the organism for the biosynthesis of important cell constituents which can be derived from the metabolic intermediates participating in the cycle. The principal reactions of the Krebs cycle which will be discussed below are outlined in the following diagram in which the oxidative steps (dehydrogenations) are indicated by the symbol  $-2[\text{H}]$ .

(1) The acetyl group which may be derived from pyruvic acid or from other metabolic intermediates or substrates enters into the cycle as acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl CoA). The so-called condensing enzyme catalyzes the transfer of the acetyl group to the four carbon compound oxaloacetic acid with the formation of the five carbon tricarboxylic acid citric acid and the liberation of CoA.

(2) and (3) Citric acid is dehydrated to cis aconitic acid which is then rehydrated to isocitric acid. Both the reactions are catalyzed by the enzyme aconitase.

(4) Isocitric acid is next oxidatively decarboxylated to yield  $\text{CO}_2$  and the five carbon compound  $\alpha$  ketoglutaric acid by enzyme systems known as isocitric dehydrogenases. Depending on the biological source of the enzyme either diphosphopyridine nucleotide (DPN) or triphosphopyridine nucleotide (TPN) may act as the coenzyme and immediate hydrogen acceptor for this reaction. There is evidence that an unstable intermediate oxalosuccinic acid is formed in the course of the reaction.

(5)  $\alpha$  Ketoglutaric acid is then oxidized and decarboxylated to yield the four carbon compound succinic acid. This involves a sequence of reactions in which DPN serves as the hydrogen acceptor and inorganic phosphate is taken up with the formation of ATP from adenosinediphosphate (ADP). The first step catalyzed by the  $\alpha$  ketoglutaric dehydrogenase system requires DPN and CoA. The products are  $\text{CO}_2$ , reduced DPN (DPNH) and succinyl CoA. In the next step the P enzyme decarboxylates the succinyl CoA with the simultaneous formation of ATP from inorganic phosphate and ADP. Succinic acid is produced and CoA is regenerated.

(6) and (7) Succinic acid is next oxidized to fumaric acid by the enzyme succinic dehydrogenase and fumaric acid is hydrated to malic acid by fumarase.

(8) Malic acid is oxidized to oxaloacetic acid by the enzyme malic dehydrogenase with the concomitant reduction of DPN. The oxaloacetic acid is regenerated through the entire sequence of reactions of the cycle and becomes available for reacting with acetyl CoA.

The enzymatic reactions of the Krebs cycle are important not only as a source of energy for the cell but also as a source of essential metabolic intermediate which enter as starting material for biosynthetic processes. Thus  $\alpha$  ketoglutaric acid is decarboxylated to yield the amino acid glutamate.

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PHO PHATE (ATP) CELL (BIOLOGICAL) CO E  
ZYME CYTOCHRO E DIPHOPH PYRIDINE  
NCCLEOTIDE (DPN) EYZYME PORPHYRYN  
TRIPHOPHPTRI t c NCCLEOTIDE (TPN) [M D]

Krong Penney model

An de ed e-dimen on l model of ry t l  
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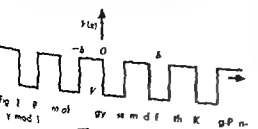


Fig 1 p mol gy m m d f th K p p n y mod l

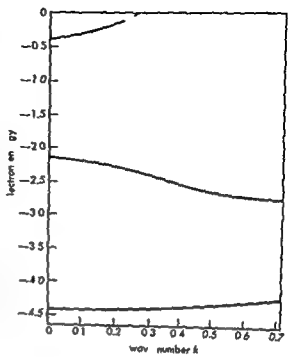


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Krypton

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heated thus krypton is a better filling gas although more expensive than argon. Two different uses are made of this advantage: krypton-filled lamps can be operated either at the same brightness as those filled with argon in which case the life of the lamp is a good deal longer, or at higher filament temperatures to give a brighter light at greater efficiency (more lumens per watt) but this reduces the life of the lamp somewhat. An example of a use for the brighter lamp is in slide projectors and projectors for home movies.

Krypton is also used to fill electric arc lamps. An example is a new lamp the light from which will pierce fog for 1000 ft or more. Lamps of this type are arranged in rows to mark airplane runways at night. The lamps flash 40 times per minute each flash lasting only 17  $\mu$ sec in order not to blind the pilots.

Radioactive krypton 85 is relatively inexpensive and is finding a number of uses. One is in leak testing of sealed containers. Another is in the continuous measurements of the thicknesses of material such as sheets of metal and plastics. Another use is in lamp which give off light for several years with no source of energy other than the radioactivity of the krypton. In the case of the invisible radiation from the krypton activates a phosphor coated on the inner glass walls of the lamp and the phosphor gives off light continuously until the krypton has decayed to a low level of radioactivity. Krypton 85 can be used to detect abnormal heart openings, the introduction of this gas into the human body is practical because the krypton remains in the body for only a short time, working its way out via the blood stream and lung and is not fixed in the body.

**Occurrence.** The only commercial source of stable krypton is the air, although trace of krypton are found in minerals and meteorites. Krypton constitutes 1.14 parts per million (ppm) by volume of the earth's atmosphere and this krypton is also entirely a mixture of the following isotopes, none of which is radioactive: 78 (0.35%), 80 (2.27%), 82 (11.56%), 83 (11.55%), 84 (56.90%), 86 (13.37%). The relative abundances of the isotopes is given in parentheses after the mass number. Since some radioactive krypton 85 is formed when atomic bombs are exploded the air now contains this isotope and krypton recently separated from air is very slightly radioactive.

A mixture of stable and radioactive isotopes of krypton is produced in nuclear reactors by the fission of uranium.

It is estimated that about  $2 \times 10^6$  of the weight of the earth is krypton. Krypton also occurs outside the earth. The estimated amount that is available at 51 atm of krypton for each 1000 000 atom of the neon in the atmosphere.

**Discovery.** Krypton was discovered in England in 1898 by Sir William Ramsay and M. W. Trauer. They found it in the less volatile part of the inert gas mixture left after the oxygen and nitrogen had been removed chemically from a sample of air. The

Table 1 Physical properties of krypton

At. m. n. mbe	36
Atom. w. g/l. t. (atmo. p.)	83.80
Melting point, $^{\circ}$ C	1
Boiling point at 1 atm. pres., $^{\circ}$ C	119.34
Gas density at 0 $^{\circ}$ C, 1 atm. pres., g/l. t.	3.71
Liquid density at boiling point, g/ml	4
Solubility: w. t. ml. g. p. 1000 g. water at 25 $^{\circ}$ C, 1 atm. p.	85

fact that a new element was present was confirmed by the discovery of new lines in the emission spectrum of the residual gas.

**Properties.** Krypton is a colorless, odorless, and tasteless gas. Table 1 gives some physical properties of krypton.

Krypton does not form chemical compounds in the ordinary sense of the word, although it forms some weakly bonded clathrate, for example with water, hydroquinone, or phenol (see CLATHRATE COMPOUNDS). There is only one atom in each molecule of krypton.

**Production.** Stable krypton is produced in air separation plant. Air is liquefied and distilled. Krypton and xenon remain with the oxygen. The liquid oxygen is redistilled to concentrate the krypton and xenon from a few parts per million to a few per cent. The rare gases are then adsorbed from the liquid oxygen onto silica gel, desorbed, separated, and purified. Final purification is carried out by passing the krypton over hot titanium metal on which all except inert gas impurities are removed.

A mixture of stable and radioactive krypton isotopes is produced in nuclear reactors. The only radioactive isotope in the mixture which has a half-life of over about 3 hours is krypton 85. This isotope has a half-life of about 10 years. This is krypton from a nuclear reactor has been tested for several days; the only radioactive isotope left is krypton 85. Table 2 gives the approximate isotopic composition of the krypton thus produced. The composition of the krypton mixture varies somewhat with conditions in the reactor. A nuclear reactor comes into wide use for power production, a large amount of radioactive krypton will come available. Since no cheap method of separating the radioactive from the stable isotopes of krypton is known, it is a nuclear reactor is not at present a source of stable krypton even though about 9% of the krypton produced in it consists of stable isotopes.

**Analytical methods.** The principal method for determining the krypton content in gases is mass spectrometry and gas chromatography. Until these

Table 2 Isotopes in reactor produced krypton

M	Isotope	Isotopic composition		
		St. 11	St. 11	St. 11
80	80	1.7		
82	82	11.5		
84	84	56.9		
86	86	13.3		



composition relations *Geochim et Cosmochim Acta* 11 310-334 1957

## Kyanite

A nesosilicate mineral composition  $\text{Al}_2\text{SiO}_5$  crystallizing in the triclinic system. Crystals are usually long and tabular and commonly occur in bladed aggregate. There is one perfect cleavage the specific gravity is 3.56-3.66. The hardness of kyanite one of its interesting features is 5 (Mohs scale) parallel to the length of the crystals but 7 across the length.

The luster is vitreous to pearly and the color is usually a shade of blue but may be white gray or green. See SILICATE MINERALS

Kyanite is a polymorphic form of  $\text{Al}_2\text{SiO}_5$ , the other forms being andalusite and sillimanite. These three minerals are found in aluminous metamorphic rocks each stable under different conditions. Kyanite is formed at low temperature and high pressure relative to andalusite and sillimanite. The transitions from one mineral to another are so sluggish that they may coexist in the same rock. See ANDALUSITE SILLIMANITE

Kyanite is characteristically found in micaschists often associated with garnet staurolite and corundum. Fine crystals, some of gem quality are found at St. Gothard, Switzerland. Kyanite has been mined in India and in the United States in Georgia and North Carolina for the manufacture of highly refractory porcelain. [C389C]



in the western United States have been shown by more detailed work to be much more complex than originally described. See PLUTON [J A N]

## Lacquer

A surface coating the vehicle of which contain a substantial quantity of a cellulose derivative. This derivative is most commonly nitrocellulose but may be a cellulose ester such as cellulose acetate or cellulose butyrate or a cellulose ether such as ethyl cellulose. The term is sometimes used for other coatings which have properties and uses similar to those of lacquers, particularly clear metallic coatings. Originally lacquers were coatings produced by the use of the juice of a tree of the sumac family but these materials often called Oriental or Chinese lacquers are not widely used today.

Lacquers are made by dissolving nitrocellulose and other modifying materials in a solvent and pigmenting if desired. They dry by evaporation of the solvent. Because solvents with very high volatility may be used, extremely fast drying times may be obtained and lacquers are usually applied by spray. The drying time may be extended to all low brushing but brushing lacquers are not commonly used.

Nitrocellulose is not soluble in conventional paint thinners so that a mixture of solvents usually containing esters (ethyl acetate), aromatic hydrocarbons (toluene) and petroleum thinners are used. Alcohols and other solvents may be present. The solvents must be chosen carefully for the combination of solvency and evaporation rate required.

Nitrocellulose is very hard, its flexibility is modified by the addition of plasticizers. These may be vegetable oils such as castor or linseed which have been modified to be compatible with nitrocellulose or chemical compounds such as dibutyl phthalate or tricresyl phosphate. Numerous other materials are also used for this purpose. The adhesion of lacquers can be improved by the addition of other resins and the film also may reduce the cost by allowing the use of less expensive solvents or alternatively allowing the application of heavier film.

Historically the development of lacquer came in the early 1920 when ample supplies of relatively inexpensive chemical solvents became available after World War I. This coincided with the great increase in the production of automobiles and the demand for a fast drying, weather resistant finish which could be used to replace the previously used enamel which required long drying periods. Lacquers still constitute the finish used on about one-half the automobiles produced in the United States and furnish a substantial portion of the coating for furniture and other factory finished items.

Lacquers using other cellulose derivative are much less common. Cellulose acetate, butyrate and butyrate have certain specific uses particularly for clear coatings where good weather resistance is required. Ethyl cellulose gives film

of extreme flexibility but such coatings are too soft for many uses. See PAINT, SOLVENT, SURFACE COATING [F A]

## Lacrimal gland

A tubuloalveolar or acinous gland also known as the tear gland. The lacrimal glands develop from the skin epithelium which folds inward over the developing eye. Two types occur among the vertebrates: the lacrimal proper and the Harderian. The eye glands are first found in the amphibians, associated with the inside of the lower eyelid. In urodele amphibians the eye gland extends along the inner aspect of the lower eyelid. In *Salamandra* it becomes divisible into an anterior Harderian gland associated with lower eyelid structures and a posterior lacrimal gland below the upper eyelid. In frogs and toads only the Harderian gland is present and is associated with the nictitating membrane or third eyelid which develops in relation to the lower lid.

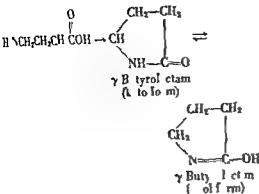
The eye glands drain into the nasal cavity by means of the lacrimal duct. In higher vertebrates, with the exception of snakes, certain lizards, and geckos, Harderian and lacrimal glands are present. In the higher vertebrates the Harderian gland functions in relation to the third eyelid or nictitating membrane and the lacrimal gland becomes located dorsally above the eyeball near the outer angle of the palpebral fissure. In aquatic mammals such as seals, whale, and sea cow, the Harderian gland is the more prominent of the two sets of eye glands and it secretes a sebaceous or oily substance. In land mammals the lacrimal gland proper is highly developed as a complex tubuloalveolar structure with several ducts which pour their copious fluid into the outer upper part of the conjunctival sac or cavity. The tear udder, as it is called, lies across the eyeball to the inner palpebral fissure or commissure. Eventually it passes through two small openings, one on the margin of each lid, into the lacrimal duct. The latter converges to form the lacrimal sac from which the nasal lacrimal duct leads into the nasal passage. Tears contain a considerable quantity of the common salt sodium chloride. See FRITHFLUUM, EYE, FIRM, ORDERS, GLAND [OF]

## Lactam and lactim

Lactams are internal (cyclic) amides formed by heating  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  amino acids. Structurally they are nitrogen analogs of the corresponding  $\gamma$ - and  $\delta$ -lactones. Thus  $\gamma$ -aminobutyric acid readily forms  $\gamma$ -lactam, commonly known as pyrrolidone.

The formulas show lactim to be tautomeric in the form of lactams with which they form an equilibrium mixture or the lactam nitrogen carries a free hydrogen.

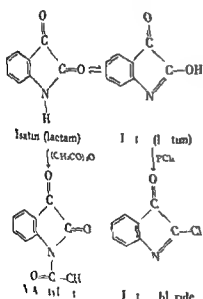
Pyrrolidone has weakly acidic and basic properties, forming a hydrochloride and a sodium salt. Alkylation of the latter gives  $N$ -alkyl pyrrolidones.



With a ethyl ne N inylpyrrol d e f m poly me g t p l y r y l p r h d n e the last r i u s e d i s e r v o l p y f o h a i t t g

Common al p d t i l p y r r l d o n e u l l e e t h e r t r a t m n t f y b t y l a m e w t h m m o n t h e p r t l r d c t n o f s u c s m d e P p r d n e ( s l l c t m ) i m d f o m ( s l o l c t e a n d m m s m l l e r r g ( s l t m s ) a n d l a g e ( d h g h e ) m t b e m a d e b n d r e t m e t h o d h d d t i n o f k e t e e s t i m e s f B l c t m d g x p a i n a B l e k m a n r e r r n g m t f e y c l k t i m e f o a d h i g h e r l t m s

The t a t m e q u l b r m x t i g b e t w e e n l a t m d l t m t c t u e s w l e m p l i f i e d i a n n d a t n p o d t o f i d i g



The t a t h l i m t w t h t e a n h d d t f m v t y l a t w t h p h p h u p e t h l d t e t a t h l i m g g t A t h g h y d s m c d e n t i t h e r m e t h r p d g l a t m s h w p o e d t h t p t t y S e A t v o r m L c t t A o l a c t v r [ E B R ]

# Lactase

An enzyme found n mammal h cybee lary a d m e p l a n t I t s a  $\beta$  g a l a t i d a n w l c h l y d l z l a t e t a l c t e a n d g l I n m a m m a l s l a t e a p p r i n t h e i t e t i a l s e r t i n t h a t i f r m t h e i t e s t i a l v i l l i a d e e r t s i t s e f f e c t o l a t e m c h y m e S e e E z y m e G L U C O S E [ D V L ]

# Lactate

A l a t r e t e r f l a t i c a c i d



i n w h c h t h e a c d h y d r o g e n h a s b e n r e p l a c e d l y m t a l o a o r g a n i c r a d i c a l A l k a l i m e t a l a l t a r w a t e r l i b l e t h r s a r i n l i b l e M a y a l t h p r c t a l a p p l i c a t n f r a m p l a b l o o d g u i n t n c a l c m t h e r a p y ( a l c i m ) a s t i p p r t ( l u m u m ) i n t r a t m e n t f a e m a ( i n ) a n d a p l t c i r f d m L o w e r m l e c l a r w i g h t t s a r w a t e r l i l l E t e u d a o l e n t s f l a c q u e r c e l l e c t a t e a n d e l l e n t r a t S e C A R B O Y L I C A C I D F S T R L A C T I C A C I D S O L V E N T [ E H H ]

# Lactation

The f a t i o a l a t t r f t h m m m r y g l a d w h i h t h e e e t i u f m l k

S o o a f t r b i r t h t h e y o u g b g n p i o d n u r s e r m l k r e m I A e r y i m p o r t n t m e c h a n i m n l g b o t h t h e e r v o u a n d d o c r n e y t e m m i t o p l y T h a t f n r i g s n e r v e m p u l t h b a n d p t e s p i t u a r y w h i h t h d b r g f o x y t o n i t t h e b l o o d T h s b r m e f l t t h m m m a r y g l a n d s c a u g t h o t a t o f i m e p t h e l a l c e l l w h i h u r r n d e c h l l f i g t h m l k f m t h e l m e f t h e l o l m t h e d i f f r e m a l b y t h e n l f f t h m t h r i d t i b e d t t h t i m e f r g h o r m o n d r e n l i s d c h a r g d f i m t h a d r l g l a d l f a d n a l a c h e s t h e m m m a y g l a n d b e f y t c s d i c h a r g d u p e t i t h e n t a t i o n o f t h m y o p h l m a d m l k m a l d s n t t k e p l e T h n s i n g m t h m t b n t t e d a d f r e o f t e r c i t e m e t

M i l k p r o d u c t i o n T h e f i t m l k c l t r u m s e t d b f r e p a t u r t i t p a l l y r h i n g m m g l b u l w h i c h e t n m m n e b o d i T h d g e s t i t f t h n w b r n b b t h s p t t a t a n t t h e b l o d t h n f a t e m p o r y m m n t y t m m n d a e W t h t h e r e g u l r m l o f m l k t h a m n t f i m l k s r e t d u r f o a p e r d o f t i m e t h e n g r a d u l l y d l e u t t h m a l a d i d r y u p l d r y a m l h t h e w p g n a n y i d u c e d b t t h t h d y t h l c t a n p d l a



tation and pregnancy with additional growth of the mammary glands occurs so that a second lactation period is initiated at yearly intervals. The total yield of milk increases each year until about the seventh or eighth year then declines with old age.

**Control of secretion** The secretion of milk is under hormonal control. At the time milk is removed by the mediation of oxytocin the nursing stimulus also causes a discharge of lactogenic hormone into the blood which stimulates milk manufacture during the interval between nursings. Without this hormone the cells cease to secrete milk. However, there are a number of other hormones which influence the intensity of secretion. Of these the growth hormone of the pituitary gland and thyroxine from the thyroid gland are most important. The effectiveness of these hormones can be shown by their administration during the declining phase of lactation. When thyroxine is injected or thyroprotein is fed to dairy cattle at this time there usually follows an increase in the yield of milk for a period. On the other hand, if the thyroid gland is removed, lactation is reduced up to 40%. An optimal level of thyroxine secretion is essential for optimal milk secretion. The growth hormone which regulates body growth also plays an important role in regulating milk secretion. See MAMMARY GLAND see also ADRENAL GLAND PITUITARY GLAND THYROID GLAND [CWT]

## Lactic acid

A slightly hygroscopic syrup with a specific gravity of 1.294 at 25°C. The acid also known as α-hydroxypropionic acid contains one asymmetric carbon atom and exists as two optically active isomers that can be converted by an enzyme racemase into the racemic mixture (see OPTICAL ACTIVITY RACEMIZATION). L(+) lactic acid also called *sarcolactic* and *paralactic acid* is metabolized by animals whereas D(-) lactic acid is not. The lactic acid of commerce is the racemic mixture commonly known as *l* lactic acid (optically inactive). Annually 5,000,000 lb is produced for use in pharmaceutical preparations, in the textile and leather industry in the production of inks, solvents, lacquers and plastics, and as a food preservative.

Lactic acid may be prepared chemically although industrial production is by fermentation.

**Fermentation** Industrial production of lactic acid is accomplished by fermentation of refined glucose, hydrolyzed starch, whey and molasses. The more refined substrates are used for production of the higher grades to reduce purification costs. Sulfite waste liquor, juice of culled citrus fruits, enzymatically hydrolyzed potatoes and acid hydrolyzed wood mill sawdust, straw, corn cobs, extracted beet slices and Jerusalem artichokes have also been proposed as substrates.

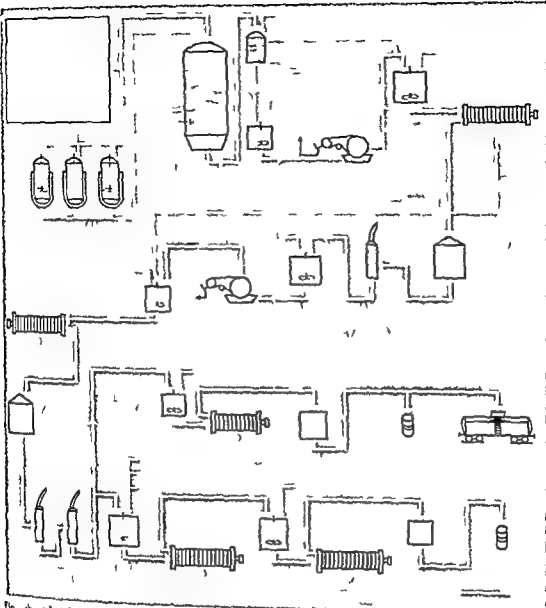
Bacteria suitable for commercial production of lactic acid may be isolated from souring foods, grains, malt sprouts or soil. These organisms have complex nutritional requirements. For example *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* requires 14 amino acids and 4 vitamins and is stimulated by a number of other substances. These growth factors can be provided by adding small amounts of malt sprouts, corn steep liquor, distillers grains or oilseeds, koji, rice bran, peanut oil cake, soybean cake, undenatured milk or extracts of liver and yeast. Maintenance of the culture requires frequent transfers in media of low sugar content such as 5% corn mash.

In one commercial process *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* is transferred serially from test tube to flasks to seed tanks and finally to the wooden or stainless steel fermentor maintaining an inoculum level of 10%. Each transfer is made after 16-20 hours of growth at 49°C which is continuously controlled. The medium consisting of 15% glucose, 0.4% malt sprouts, 0.25% diammonium phosphate and 10% calcium carbonate is not sterilized. The industry relies on cleanliness, the high temperature and low pH to restrict contaminants. Butyric bacteria are the most troublesome, particularly as they produce volatile acids in addition to a racemic mixture. Although the batch process is usually employed, continuous processes have been developed. Corrosion is a major problem.

The fermentation requires four to six days when the concentration of sugar falls to 0.1% or less and the yield reaches 90-95%. Small changes in pH adversely affect the fermentation and automatic control is advantageous. The optimum pH of 5.6-5.8 is maintained by adding sufficient calcium carbonate initially or intermittently as required. Although not used industrially, the submerged culture

Table 1 Characteristics of lactic acid organisms

Organism	Morphology	Substrates	Optimum temperature	Acid produced
<i>Lactobacillus bulgaricus</i>	Rod	Lactose, whey	40°C	Racemic
<i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i>	Rod	Glucose, molasses	40°C	L(+)
<i>Lactobacillus helveticus</i>	Rod	Pentoses, hydrolyzed wood	30°C	Racemic
<i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i>	Rod	Pentose, ulf, juice	30°C	Racemic
<i>Streptococcus lactis</i>	Coccus	Lactose, whey	30°C	L(+)
<i>Bacillus coagulans</i>	Rod	Glucose, lactose	40°C	L(+)
<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	Mold	Glucose, starch	30°C	L(+)



No. 1111th product filter d

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 A l t m a t e m e t h o d s p o p s d f p u r i f y g  
 l c t d s l d (1) t e a m d t u l l t o n n d e r  
 e u u m (2) e r y t l l z a t i n a s t h c o o l i n e  
 l t (3) e t r a t n f t h l a t c c d w i t h n i t r o  
 p a a f f i n i s o p o p y l e t h e o n m y l a l c o h l d  
 (4) c o n e s n t n t r Th l t t e p r o c e s h a s  
 b e c s i l l y p p l d t o t h e t e y o f m e t h y l  
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 p d h e m l l y b y (1) r a c t i g l h y d o x d

tation and pregnancy with additional growth of the mammary glands occurs so that a second lactation period is initiated at yearly intervals. The total yield of milk increases each year until about the seventh or eighth year then declines with old age.

**Control of secretion.** The secretion of milk is under hormonal control. At the time milk is removed by the mediation of oxytocin the nursing stimulus also causes a discharge of lactogenic hormone into the blood which stimulates milk manufacture during the interval between nursings. With out this hormone the cells cease to secrete milk. However there are a number of other hormones which influence the intensity of secretion. Of these the growth hormone of the pituitary gland and thyroxin from the thyroid gland are most important. The effectiveness of these hormones can be shown by their administration during the declining phase of lactation. When thyroxin is injected or thyroprotein is fed to dairy cattle at this time there usually follows an increase in the yield of milk for a period. On the other hand if the thyroid gland is removed lactation is reduced up to 40%. An optimal level of thyroxin secretion is essential for optimal milk secretion. The growth hormone which regulates body growth also plays an important role in regulating milk secretion. See MAMMARY GLAND see also ADRENAL GLAND PITUITARY GLAND THYROID GLAND [CWT]

## Lactic acid

A slightly hygroscopic syrup with a specific gravity of 1.294 at 25°C. The acid also known as  $\alpha$ -hydroxypropionic acid contains one asymmetric carbon atom and exists as two optically active isomers that can be converted by an enzyme racemase into the racemic mixture (see OPTICAL ACTIVITY, RACEMIZATION). L(+) Lactic acid also called sarcolactic and paralactic acid is metabolized by animals whereas D(-) lactic acid is not. The lactic acid of commerce is the racemic mixture commonly known as DL lactic acid (optically inactive). Annually 5,000,000 lb is produced for use in pharmaceutical preparations in the textile and leather industry in the production of inks solvents lacquers and plastics and as a food preservative.

Lactic acid may be prepared chemically although industrial production is by fermentation.

**Fermentation.** Industrial production of lactic acid is accomplished by fermentation of refined glucose hydrolyzed starch whey and molasses. The more refined substrates are used for production of the higher grades to reduce purification costs. Sulfite waste liquor juice of culled citrus fruits enzymatically hydrolyzed potatoes and acid hydrolyzed wood mill sawdust straw corn or extracted beet slices and Jerusalem artichokes have also been proposed as substrates.

Bacteria suitable for commercial production of lactic acid may be isolated from souring foods grains malt sprouts or soil. The organisms have complex nutritional requirements. For example *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* requires 14 amino acids and 4 vitamins and is stimulated by a number of other substances. These growth factors can be provided by adding small amounts of malt sprout corn steep liquor distillers grains or soluble koji rice bran peanut oil cake soybean cake undenatured milk or extracts of liver and yeast. Maintenance of the culture requires frequent transfers in media of low sugar content such as 5% corn mash.

In one commercial process *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* is transferred serially from test tube to flask to seed tanks and finally to the wooden or stainless steel fermentor maintaining an inoculum level of 10%. Each transfer is made after 16-20 hours of growth at 49°C which is continuously controlled. The medium consisting of 15% glucose 0.4% malt sprouts 0.25% diammonium phosphate and 10% calcium carbonate is not sterilized. The industry relies on cleanliness the high temperature and low pH to restrict contaminants. Butyric bacteria are the most troublesome particularly as they produce volatile acids in addition to a racemic acid. Although the batch process is usually employed continuous processes have been devised. Corrosion is a major problem.

The fermentation requires four to six days when the concentration of sugar falls to 0.1% or less and the yield reaches 90-95%. Small changes in pH adversely affect the fermentation and automatic control is advantageous. The optimum pH of 5.6-5.8 is maintained by adding sufficient calcium carbonate initially or intermittently as required. Although not used industrially the submerged culture

Table 1 Characteristics of lactic acid organisms

Organism	Morphology	Substrates	Optimum temperature	Acid produced
<i>Lactobacillus bulgaricus</i>	Rod	Lactose whey	40-50°C	Racemic
<i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i>	Rod	Glucose molasses	4-50°C	L(+)
<i>Lactobacillus brevis</i>	Rod	Pentoses hydrolyzed wood	30°C	Racemic
<i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i>	Rod	Pentoses sulfite liquor	30°C	Racemic
<i>Streptococcus lactis</i>	Coccus	Lactose whey	3°C	L(+)
<i>Bacillus coagulans</i>	Rod spores	Glucose timothy	4-60°C	L(+)
<i>Rhizopus oryzae</i>	Mold	Glucose starch	30°C	L(+)

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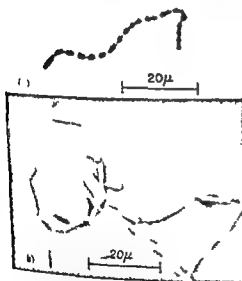


Fig 1 Morphology f th tw t b f th L c t b  
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Lactobacillus

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Fig 2 Photomicrograph f l t m t  
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(b) Ch d m d d g l m

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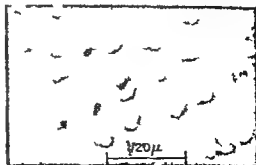


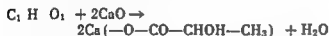
Fig 3 Photomicrograph f t t d d p d l l

Table 2 Grades of lactic acid

	Tech	cal	Ell	Pl	t c	USP
Total dity	41%	50%	50%	50%	85%	
Volatil d	1%	1%	1-2%	1-2%	2-3%	
Alh	0.6%	0.1%	0.00%	0.00%	0.05%	
	0.7%	0.5%	0.01%	0.01%	0.1%	
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with bromopropionic acid (2) oxidizing 1,2 propane diol with permanganate (3) deaminating alanine with nitrous acid (4) reducing pyruvic acid (5) combining acetaldehyde with carbon monoxide at 200°C and 900 atm pressure (6) hydrolyzing acetaldehyde cyanohydrin and (7) degrading sugars with alkali. These methods produce racemic lactic acid and being more expensive than the fermentation process are not widely employed. D(-) Lactic acid may be prepared from methyl  $\alpha$ -D-6-deoxymannopyranoside and L(-) lactic acid from methyl  $\alpha$ -L-5-deoxyarabinofuranoside by oxidation with periodic acid and bromine in aqueous solution.

Production of lactic acid by alkaline degradation of sugars according to the following equation is the subject of numerous patents

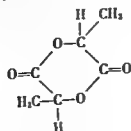


In practice, however, the sugars undergo many other kinds of rearrangements, fragmentation and oxidation. The yield of lactate is therefore of the order of 50% of the theoretical. In alkaline solutions, sugars undergo rearrangement, fragmentation and oxidation to various acids. The yield of lactic acid depends on such factors as structure of the sugar, concentration and type of alkali and temperature. Sucrose is most efficiently degraded and aldonic acids are superior to aldoses. When molasses is diluted to 18% sugar and treated with 13% calcium oxide for 2 hours at 230-235°C, the yield of lactic acid is about 40-50%. See CARBOXYLIC ACID. [FJS]

**Bibliography** R. Montgomery, *The Chemical Production of Lactic Acid from Sugars*, Sugar Research Foundation Sci. Rept. Ser. 11, 1949; S. C. Prescott and C. C. Dunn, *Industrial Microbiology*, 3d ed., 1959; L. A. Underkofler and R. J. Hickey (ed.), *Industrial Fermentations*, 1954.

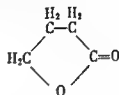
## Lactide and lactone

Lactides are cyclic intermolecular double esters formed from  $\alpha$ -hydroxy acids. Thus lactic acid,  $CH_3CHOHCOOH$ , on heating forms a lactide:



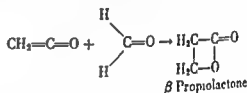
Glycolic acid,  $HOCH_2COOH$ , behaves analogously. In each case, a bimolecular interaction occurs, forming the strain-free 6-membered ring. Most lactides are relatively low melting solids and are easily hydrolyzed by base to form salts of the parent acid; for example, sodium lactate.

Lactones are internal cyclic monoesters formed by  $\gamma$  or  $\delta$ -hydroxy acids. Pentamethyleneol,  $\gamma$ -hydroxybutyric acid,  $HOCH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$ , forms  $\gamma$ -butyrolactone:



Other lactones of smaller or greater ring size are prepared specially.

The  $\gamma$  and  $\delta$  lactones are commonly prepared by either hydrolysis or distillation of  $\gamma$  or  $\delta$  haloacids by treatment of an unsaturated acid with aqueous hydrobromic or sulfuric acid, or by partial reduction of cyclic acid anhydride.  $\beta$ -Lactones result from the reaction of ketene with aldehydes or ketones:



Large ring lactones can be made by oxidation of cyclic ketones with Caro's acid; thus cyclohexanone yields caprolactone.

The lower lactones are neutral liquids that react with bases (alkali, ammonia and amines) to give open chain derivatives of the parent hydroxy acid. Very large-ring (macrocyclic) lactones, for example 15 or 16 carbon, have pronounced musk odors (perfumes).

Unsaturated lactones (butenolides) are widely distributed; for example, the angelica lactone, penicillic acid and protoanemonine (mold metabolite), coumarin (tonka bean) and coumarone (spilled sweet clover) are used medicinally as a hemorrhaging or antitussive agent in coronary thrombosis. See ESTER. [EAB]

## Lactobacillaceae

A family of bacteria of the order Fulcratales. Although they are primarily saprophytic, a few species are pathogenic. The bacteria are generally known as sugar fermenters, producing lactic acid as a major product. They are found in fermenting food products, in the mouth, in the intestinal tract, and in the soil. The saprophyte usually are nonmotile and show neither reduction of nitrate, gelatin liquefaction, catalase production, nor sulfide gas with in liquid media. The species are more or less pathogenic or anaerobic, inactive toward proteins, but fastidious in their requirements. Some strains have lecithinase activity. [L. J. G. A.]

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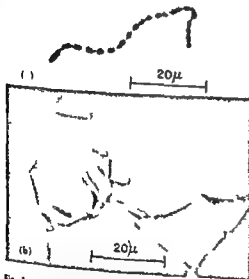


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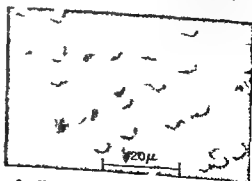


Fig 3 Ph t m g ph f t t d d p a d II  
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first observed in the slime masses of sugar factories. They convert glucose to lactic acid and alcohol, carbon dioxide and acetic acid and in addition partially convert fructose to mannitol and sucrose to dextran.

The species of the genus *Pediococcus* first isolated as contaminants in beer have been observed in other fermenting foods. They include the highest acid-producing species in the tribe.

The species of the genus *Peptostreptococcus* are usually anaerobic and associated with septic and gangrenous conditions or found in the respiratory tract and may be pathogenic. The species differ physiologically from those in the other genera in their growth on protein decomposition products as well as on organic acids and carbohydrates with production of carbon dioxide, hydrogen, hydrogen sulfide and various acids in addition to lactic acid.

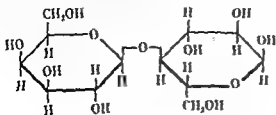
**Lactobacillaceae** The tribe Lactobacillaceae is divided into five genera based upon morphological and physiological characters.

The species of the genus *Lactobacillus* include the high acid-producing bacteria associated with fermenting foods and the intestinal tract. They include two general groups. The homofermentative species like those of the genera *Streptococcus* and *Pediococcus* among the cocci produce lactic acid as a major fermentation end product. The heterofermentative species are comparable to those of the genus of cocci *Leuconostoc* in their growth end products.

The species of the genera *Eubacterium*, *Catenobacterium* and *Cillobacterium* are low acid-producing bacteria from the intestinal tract and lesions and are comparable with species of *Peptostreptococcus* among the cocci. In addition to lactic acid, formic, acetic, propionic, butyric and other acids are formed during fermentation. Some of these may be protein degradation products. They are divided into the four genera on the basis of morphological characters, motility and cell branching. The physiology of these strict anaerobes has not been completely elucidated and further work may show that some of these species should be placed in genera of other families. See **EUBACTERIALES** [C.S.P.]

## Lactose

Milk sugar or  $\beta$ -D-galactopyranosyl D-glucose. This reducing disaccharide is formed as the  $\alpha$ -D-anomer; the melting point (mp) is 20°C and the optical activity is  $[\alpha]_D^{25} + 52.6$ . Crystallizes at high temperatures (above 93.5°C) as the



Lactose ( $\alpha$ -D-lactose) (F.P. 1)

$\beta$ -D-anomer mp 252°C and  $[\alpha]_D^{25} + 33 \rightarrow +5.1$ . Lactose is found in the milk of mammals to the extent of approximately 2-8%. It is usually prepared from whey which is obtained as a by-product in the manufacture of cheese. Upon concentration of the whey, crystalline lactose is deposited. Lactose is not fermentable by ordinary baker's yeast. In the curdling of milk, *Lactobacillus acidophilus* and certain other microorganisms bring about lactic acid fermentation by transforming the lactose of the milk into lactic acid,  $\text{CH}_3\text{CHOHCOOH}$ . See **CHEESE**, **MILK**, **OPTICAL ACTIVITY**.

Chemical evidence shows that the glycosidic linkage involves the carbon atom 1 of the  $\beta$ -galactose and carbon 4 of a glucose. Enzymatic studies indicate that the galactosidic linkage has the  $\beta$  configuration. See **OLIGOSACCHARIDE** [W.E.N.]

## Lagomorpha

An order of mammals including the pikas, rabbits and hares. These were long regarded as rodents, usually under the subordinal name *Duphidentata*, but modern studies show that lagomorphs and rodents are only remotely related if at all. For the mammals of lagomorphs are abundant from the Oligocene on but are almost unknown in the early Tertiary when the major radiation of the rodents was taking place. The hares and rabbits were already distinct from the pikas when they first appeared in the fossil record.

The living lagomorphs are distinguished by having four incisors in each jaw in stead of two as in rodents. The central pair is enlarged and chisel-like, the lateral pair reduced to small pegs lying behind the central pair. Numerous other features in the dentition, skeleton and musculature and serological tests emphasize the distinctness of the lagomorphs from the rodents. The order is divided into three families. The *Furymylidae* containing a single known genus *Furymylus* from the Paleocene of Mongolia lack the second pair of incisors. The *Ochotonidae* the pikas or rock rabbits are small hooved nonleaping forms more primitive than true rabbits. The lepuscids are the leaped leaping animal with long hind legs. In the rabbits the specialized than the hare. The young are born naked and helpless. Numerous domestic varieties exceed in number only by the variety of the domestic dog have been developed. In the hare typified by the arctic hare and the jack rabbit the young are well haired and have their eyes open at birth. See **FURYMILIDAE**, **LACOMORPHA** [O.H.]

## Lagomorpha fossils

The lagomorphs are divided into three families: the rabbits and hares (*Leporidae*), the pikas (*Ochotonidae*) and the primitive genera *Furymylus* and *Molagus* (*Furymylidae*). A comparison with the order of mammals reveals little morphological similarity in the lagomorphs. The lagomorphs have been given the name *Lepus* at the first fossil stage. The lagomorphs

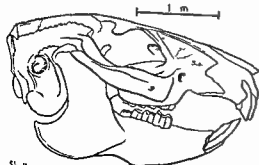
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## Lagrange s equations

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$$W = \sum F \delta x = \sum m_i \delta x_i \quad (3)$$

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$$\delta W = \sum \frac{\partial x}{\partial q_i} \delta q_i \quad (4)$$

th t

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial q} = \frac{\partial}{\partial q} \quad (5)$$



It is readily verified that

$$W = \sum_j \left[ \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{q}_j} \left( \frac{1}{2} m_j \dot{x}_j^2 \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \dot{q}_j} \left( \frac{1}{2} m_j \dot{x}_j^2 \right) \right] \delta q_j \quad (6)$$

The quantity in the brackets is thus for each  $j$  the noncartesian analog of the cartesian  $m \ddot{x}$ .

The only quantity which appears differentiated in Eq. (6) is the total kinetic energy  $T$  of the system. This is easily calculated in generalized coordinates because the connection between the cartesian velocities and the generalized velocities is linear and homogeneous. Usually the kinetic energy can be written by inspection without using Eq. (2) explicitly. Thus

$$W = \sum_j \left( \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} \right) \delta q_j \quad (7)$$

Transforming the right hand side of Newton's equation is simpler. Write

$$W = \sum F \delta x_j = \sum_j Q_j \delta q_j \quad (8)$$

where 
$$Q_j = \sum F \frac{\partial x_j}{\partial q_j} \quad (9)$$

is the  $j$ th component of the generalized force. By the preceding argument  $Q_j$  depends only on the externally applied forces; the forces of constraint necessarily cancelling in the summation.

The displacement  $\delta q_j$  was entirely arbitrary. Thus it follows from equating expression (7) and (8) for  $W$  that

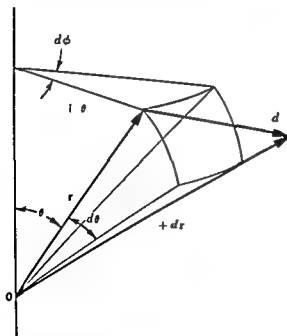


Fig. 1. The vector  $dr$  is decomposed into three orthogonal vectors of magnitudes  $r \sin \theta d\phi$ ,  $r d\theta$ , and  $dr$  respectively.  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  are spherical coordinates.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{q}_j} = Q_j \quad (10)$$

These are Lagrange's equations of motion. They are valid also when moving constraints are present. See CONSTRAINT.

**Examples** Use of this form of Lagrange's equations is shown in the two following examples.

**Particle in central force field.** Here the force acting on a particle acts always through a fixed point. Choose this point as origin of a spherical coordinate system with coordinates  $r, \theta, \phi$  (Fig. 1). Only radial displacements involve work, so only  $Q_r$  differs from zero.

$$Q_r = Q_\theta = Q_\phi = 0$$

The kinetic energy is given in section of Fig. 1 to be

$$T = \frac{m}{2} (\dot{r}^2 + r^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + r^2 \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2)$$

Lagrange's equations are

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{r}} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} = m(r - r\dot{\theta}^2 - r \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2) = Q_r$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{\theta}} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} = m \left[ \frac{d}{dt} (r^2 \dot{\theta}) - r^2 \sin \theta \cos \theta \dot{\phi}^2 \right] = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial T}{\partial \dot{\phi}} - \frac{\partial T}{\partial \phi} = m \frac{d}{dt} (r^2 \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}) = 0$$

The  $Q$  may be compared with the cartesian equations

$$m\ddot{x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} F(x, y, z)$$

$$m\ddot{y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} F(x, y, z)$$

$$m\ddot{z} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} F(x, y, z)$$

in which the force function  $F$  appears in all three of the equations of motion, while two of the three Lagrange equations are independent of the detailed nature of the force.

**Two particles fixed separation.** In this system there is one constraint, the particle being a constant distance  $d$  apart, and so there are five degrees of freedom instead of six. Choose a general set of coordinates the cartesian coordinates  $x, y, z$  of the center of mass, and the polar angle  $\theta, \phi$  of the line joining the two particles, as in Fig. 2. Then because the kinetic energy is the sum of the kinetic energy of the center of mass and the kinetic energy relative to the center of mass

$$T = \frac{m_1 + m_2}{2} (\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 + \dot{z}^2) + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \right) [d^2 \dot{\theta}^2 + \sin^2 \theta \dot{\phi}^2]$$

The equation of motion may be written immediately the generalized force being evaluated from Eq. (9). There is one equation for each degree of freedom and the constraint is automatically satisfied.

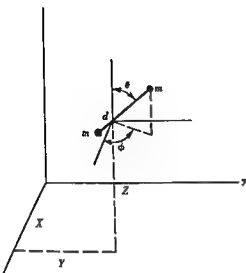


Fig 2 XYZ. It is the distance from the origin to the point m. The vector d is the distance from the point m to the point d on the Z-axis. The vector s is the distance from the point d to the point m. The angle between r and d is labeled phi. The angle between d and the Z-axis is labeled theta.

Conservative systems. In many problems the forces  $Q_i$  are conservative. Then

$$W = \sum_i Q_i dq_i = -dV \quad (11)$$

and thus

$$Q = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial q} \quad \frac{\partial V}{\partial q} = 0 \quad (12)$$

When this is so, the Lagrangian is defined as

$$L(q, \dot{q}, t) = T(q, \dot{q}, t) - V(q, t) \quad (13)$$

Then the equations of motion can be written as

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} = 0 \quad (14)$$

These are the equations of motion for a system of particles. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity.

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$$T = m(\dot{q}^2)/2$$

The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity.

$$\text{and} \quad \frac{1}{2} m \dot{q}_1^2 - k q_1 = 0 \quad \frac{1}{2} m \dot{q}_2^2 = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \dot{q}_2 = 0$$

The solution to the first of these differential equations is  $q_1 = A \sin \sqrt{2k/m} t$  (with  $q_1 = 0$  at  $t = 0$ ) which is a simple harmonic vibration of the two masses. The corresponding merely states that the acceleration of the center of mass of the system is

A consequence of the Form (14) is also that if the system is not conservative, the work done

$$Q = \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \dot{q}} - \frac{\partial V}{\partial q} \quad (15)$$

is the coefficient of the gradient in a potential field. Hence

$$V = e \left( \phi - \frac{A}{c} \right) \quad (16)$$

where  $\phi$  is the electrostatic potential and  $A$  is the vector potential. The charge of the particle is  $e$ . The vector potential is  $A$ . The charge of the particle is  $e$ . The vector potential is  $A$ .

Cyclic coordinates. If  $L$  does not depend explicitly on a coordinate  $q_i$ , then

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = 0 \quad \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = \text{constant} \quad (17)$$

These are the constants of motion. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity.

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left( \sum_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \dot{q}_i - L \right) = -\frac{\partial L}{\partial t} \quad (18)$$

Hence if  $L$  does not depend explicitly on time, then

$$\sum_i \left( \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \dot{q}_i - L \right) = \text{constant} \quad (19)$$

The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity.

The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity.

$$p_k = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_k} \quad (20)$$

The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity. The Lagrangian is a function of the coordinates  $q$ , the velocities  $\dot{q}$ , and time  $t$ . The Lagrangian is a scalar quantity.

**Kinetic momentum** For a charged particle in an electromagnetic field the Lagrangian may be written

$$L = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - e\phi + \frac{e}{c}\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A} \quad (21)$$

and the momentum conjugate to the cartesian coordinate  $x$  is

$$p = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{x}} = m\dot{x} + \frac{e}{c}A \quad (22)$$

The quantity  $m\dot{x}$  is called the kinetic momentum. The kinetic momentum is related to  $p$  much as the kinetic energy is related to the total energy. If  $\phi$  and  $A$  are independent of  $x$  it is the momentum  $p$  and not the kinetic momentum  $m\dot{x}$  which is a constant of motion.

**Relativistic systems** The equations of motion of a relativistic particle may be written in Lagrangian form. The simplest way to do this is to replace the kinetic energy  $T$  by another function  $\tau$  of the mass and velocity so as to get the derived form, namely

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial \dot{x}_k} - \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial x_k} = \frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{m_0 \dot{x}_k}{\sqrt{1 - \dot{x}^2/c^2}} \right) - \frac{\partial \tau}{\partial x_k} = 0$$

Here  $m_0$  is the rest mass of the particle. This is accomplished by setting

$$\tau = (1 - \sqrt{1 - \dot{x}^2/c^2}) m_0 c$$

which reduces to  $T$  in the limit  $v/c \rightarrow 0$ . The equations of motion in this form are still valid in only one reference frame because  $\tau$  is the time and the coordinates are treated on different bases. See **RELATIVISTIC MECHANICS** **RELATIVITY** [PMS]

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## Lagrangian function

A function of the generalized coordinates and velocities of a dynamical system from which the equations of motion in Lagrangian form can be derived (see **LAGRANGE EQUATIONS**). The Lagrangian function is denoted by  $L(q_1, \dots, q_l, \dot{q}_1, \dots, \dot{q}_l, t)$ .

For  $s$  terms in which the forces are derivable from a potential energy  $V$  if the kinetic energy is  $T$

$$L = T - V$$

If the system is continuous rather than discrete the Lagrangian function  $L$  is the integral of a Lagrangian density  $\mathcal{L}$

$$L = \int \mathcal{L}(\eta(x_1, x_2, x_3, t), \dot{\eta}(x_1, x_2, x_3, t)) dx_1 dx_2 dx_3$$

where  $\eta(x_1, x_2, x_3, t)$  describes the displacement of the medium at the point  $(x_1, x_2, x_3)$ . The equation of motion are in this case

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left( \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial \eta / \partial t)} \right) + \sum_{j=1}^3 \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left( \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial (\partial \eta / \partial x_j)} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \eta} = 0$$

This formulation of Lagrange equations applies to the motion of a gas containing sound waves, to a vibrating jelly or to any medium where discrete masses are replaced by a continuum [PMS]

**Bibliography** See **LAGRANGE EQUATIONS**

## Lake

An inland body of water small to moderately large in size with its surface exposed to the atmosphere. Most lake fill depression below the zone of saturation in the surrounding soil and rock material. Generically peaking all bodies of water of this type are lake although small lakes usually are called ponds, tarns (in mountains) and less frequently pools or mere. The great majority of lakes have a surface area of less than 100 square mile (mi<sup>2</sup>). More than 30 well known lakes however exceed 1500 mi<sup>2</sup> in extent and the largest fresh water body, Lake Superior, North America, covers 31,180 mi<sup>2</sup>.

Dimensions of some major lakes

Lake	Area (sq mi)	Length (mi)	Width (mi)	Depth (ft)
Caspian Sea	149,300	1,300	330	6,300
Superior	31,180	900	1,600	4,100
Volga	600	180	130	
Aral Sea	33			
Huron	1010	300	1,680	
Mitig	100	4,660		
Baikal	11,300	1800		300,3000
Tanganyika	100	8100		400
Chad	11,190		1,300	
Conch	11,100		1,36	
Ny	11,000	6,800		900,310
Malawi	9,910	116		
Witwatersrand	9,190		1,180	
Oka	10	1,390		
Black Sea	11			
Lake Erie	100			
Chad	100			
Malawi	1000			
Ly	300			
Onge	366	61		
Malawi	34			
Ny	3,089	87		
Atitlan	308			
Ti	300			
Il	11			

A list of lakes

Most lakes are relatively small with features of the earth's surface. Few measure the large lake has a maximum length of less than 100 ft (Winnipeg, Canada, Baikal, USSR, Albert, Uganda). A few, however, have a maximum depth which approaches the earth's surface. Lake Baikal in the USSR is at least a mile deep at its deepest point, and Lake Tanganyika, Africa, is about 0.9 mi.

Be it is the highest of all lakes in general, many of them are in the high mountains of the earth, and many are in the lowlands of the earth. The highest lake in the world is in the Himalayas, and the lowest is in the Dead Sea, which is 1,312 ft below sea level. The largest lake in the world is the Caspian Sea, which is 1,300 mi long and 1,600 mi wide. The smallest lake in the world is the Lake of Geneva, which is 1,300 mi long and 1,600 mi wide.

cohes upon the hills margins and eventually the lake may disappear. Most lakes have a surplus of water. Except at elevations very near sea level a stream which flows from such an outlet gradually through the barrier forming the lake basin. As the level of the outlet slowly recedes the capacity of the basin is also reduced and the disappearance of the lake is predicted.

Variations in water character. Lakes differ in the length of time water remains in them. The residence time of water in a lake is a function of the volume of water in the lake divided by the average outflow. The residence time of water in the Dead Sea is actually 100 years. Examples of lakes with long residence times are the Dead Sea, the Caspian Sea, and the Great Salt Lake. Lakes with short residence times are the Great Lakes, the Baltic Sea, and the North Atlantic. Lakes with long residence times are usually found in arid regions, while lakes with short residence times are usually found in humid regions.

The fifth most important factor in the distribution of lakes is the degree of glaciation. The typical distribution of lakes is in the form of a ring around the world. The most numerous lakes are found in the Great Lakes region of North America, in the Baltic Sea region of Europe, and in the Great Lakes region of Asia. The most numerous lakes in the world are found in the Great Lakes region of North America.

Lakes with high water levels are usually found in the Great Lakes region of North America. Lakes with low water levels are usually found in the Great Lakes region of North America. Lakes with high water levels are usually found in the Great Lakes region of North America. Lakes with low water levels are usually found in the Great Lakes region of North America.

zerland has a dolomite content of only 0.0085 ppt. Lakes within the dolomite drainage areas have a pronounced calcium carbonate and magnesium content. As in all surface waters, the degree of oxygenation is also a function of lake waters. Under special conditions, as in the case of sulfur or other gases, they may be present in lake water. Influence of color, taste, and chemical composition of the water.

**Basin and regional factors.** Most lakes are natural and are a function of the basin and the region. The alpine glaciation and regional factors are the most important factors in the formation of lakes. The lakes of Switzerland, the Alps, and the Fennoscandia region are typical examples of lakes formed by these factors.

Lake may be formed by the depression of the glacial ground (CLACIATED TERRACE) (1) terraced by continental glacier with the surface difference due to the abrasion of rocks of various hardness and resistance (2) alluvial deposits (3) cirque (glacially formed alluvial head in mountain) (4) lateral moraine (5) fault line (6) valley glacier barrier (7) eglint in the deposit of glacial drift and moraine.

Lake is a peculiar geographical feature in the landscape. The most important factors in the formation of lakes are the basin and the region. The alpine glaciation and regional factors are the most important factors in the formation of lakes. The lakes of Switzerland, the Alps, and the Fennoscandia region are typical examples of lakes formed by these factors.

Some lakes are glacially formed and are found in the Great Lakes region of North America. Some lakes are glacially formed and are found in the Great Lakes region of North America. Some lakes are glacially formed and are found in the Great Lakes region of North America.

sions. However, a few other types of depressions contain lakes: (1) craters of inactive volcanoes or calderas (Crater Lake in Oregon is a famous example); (2) depressions of tectonic or structural origin (Great Rift Valley of Africa includes Lakes Albert, Tanganyika, and Nyasa); (3) solution cavities in limestone country rock; (4) shallow depressions caused by a dotting of lakes in many parts of the tundra of high latitudes.

**Conservation and economic aspects.** The lakes created behind manmade barriers are becoming more and more common features to serve multiple purposes. Examples are Lake Mead behind Boulder Dam on the Colorado River, Lake Roosevelt behind Grand Coulee Dam on the Columbia, Kentucky Lake and other lakes of the Tennessee Valley, and Lake Tsimslyanskaya on the Don.

Both natural and manmade lakes are economically significant for their storage of water, regulation of stream flow, adaptability to navigation and recreational attractiveness. A few salt lakes are significant sources of minerals. Recreational utility is long important in the alpine region of Europe, and in Japan is now a major economic attribute of many American lakes. Economic value is generally increased by location near substantial human settlement. Most of the world's lakes, however, are located in regions where they have only minor economic significance at the present time. [F.A.A.]

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## Lambert

A unit of luminance (photometric brightness) that is equal to 1/693 candle per square centimeter. It is also defined as the uniform luminance of a perfectly diffusing surface emitting or reflecting light at the rate of 1 lumen per square centimeter. The lambert, a large unit, is satisfactory for expressing high values of luminance from bright light sources. For more moderate values of luminance, as from fluorescent lamp or reflecting surface, the millilambert (0.001 lambert) or the foot lambert is generally used.

The luminance  $B$  in lambert is

$$B = I / (d^2 \cos \theta)$$

where  $I$  is the luminous intensity in candle,  $A$  is the surface area and  $\theta$  is the angle between the normal to the surface and the line of sight. See LUMINANCE; PHOTOMETRY. [N.C.P.]

## Laminar flow

Streamline flow of a viscous fluid which satisfies the Navier-Stokes equation of motion. In laminar flow, the fluid moves in layers without large irregular fluctuations (see TURBULENT FLOW). Laminar flow occurs at low Reynolds number. This criterion depends on the condition of small electrical

dimensions of bodies to very large viscosity or to small density of the fluid. Laminar flow plays an important role in several practical problems.

The flow of oil in the bearings for lubrication is laminar. The theory of laminar flow shows that under great normal pressure the oil in the bearing has only light frictional resistance.

The motion of a minute particle in a viscous fluid produces laminar flow. The drag coefficient of such a body is inversely proportional to its Reynolds number.

Flow on the surface of modern aircraft and missiles flying at extremely high altitude may be laminar. The Reynolds number for this case is usually moderate, and the viscous effect is confined to the boundary layer region of the body. Laminar boundary layer flow determines the skin friction and the aerodynamic heating of the bodies. See *NAVIER-STOKES EQUATIONS*; *REYNOLDS NUMBER*. [S.P.]

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## Lamp (electric)

In the common incandescent lamp, a resistance wire such as tungsten is heated to incandescence by an electric current. In a vapor lamp the passage of electricity through mercury vapor or sodium vapor serves to ionize the gas and produce a brilliant visible glow discharge. Inert gases may be used in place of vapors to give other colors of light as in neon lamps and in luminous tubing for advertising signs. A fluorescent lamp is a type of vapor lamp in which the radiation from a red mercury vapor is converted into a more visible white light by fluorescent coating on the inside of the glass tubing. In an arc lamp the light is produced by an electric arc passing through the space between two electrodes. See ARC LAMP; FLUORESCENT LAMP; INCANDESCENT LAMP; VAPOR LAMP. [J.H.]

## Lamprey

Any of several species of very primitive vertebrates belonging to the class Cyclostomata. Lampreys are elongate cylindrical animals without jaw scales or paired fins. They are dark grayish black in color and are richly supplied with a slimy mucus to protect their thin skin.

Typically lampreys are external blood suckers parasitic on their fish hosts. They attach themselves to the victim by means of a round sucking mouth. Armed with horny dentition, they rasp the skin of the host until it begins to bleed. Then they feed on the wound until their hunger is satisfied. They drop off and hide in the mud until they are ready to feed again.



Sea lamprey, *Petromyzon*, is 10 to 3 ft long. E. L. P. in F. I. D. B. K. I. N. I. I. H. to Y. McG. H. 1949.

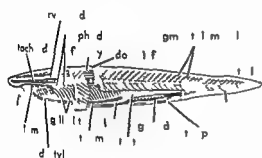




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**Lancelet**

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[J.D.]

**Land use planning**

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S e c d e l y l d e p l t a t d e m n r t e d j t  
 t l e d e t d g o f t u a l l d p b l i t y Th e  
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 t h p l s m n y p l s w h e c r p s r n t a  
 m p t b l w i t h the l m a t e a m r d g h t  
 a t t f a g d t h p l o w h a t u r d s d f  
 f i l d w h h b y t e f s i l h s c t e n t u s a n d  
 s f e l p e c a t p p r t c l u t w i t h t  
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Th d e l y c t y d e v l p m n t, t h b c e of  
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 l t e f f e d d f i d l a n d c m m e i l  
 d d t l t p r s f l d t a c h p



ence of melite, perovskite, olivine and carbonate in the matrix. Ouachite is devoid of olivine and may carry more or less glass and considerable augite as phenocrysts.

**Monchiquite and fourchite.** The rare types monchiquite and fourchite lack feldspar but carry more or less barkevikite in addition to augite, biotite, analcite and glass. Monchiquite is distinguished from fourchite largely by the presence of olivine.

**Alteration products.** Lamprophyres are highly susceptible to weathering and many are so completely decomposed that it is impossible to do more than approximate their original mineral composition. Common products of alteration include carbonate, chlorite, serpentine and limonite.

**Occurrence.** Lamprophyres occur most commonly in small or shallow intrusives (dikes, sills and plugs) and are frequently associated with large bodies of granite and diorite. Lamprophyre dikes may form parallel swarms, as at Spanish Peaks, Colorado, may form groups which radiate from a common center.

**Formation.** Lamprophyres form in a variety of ways. Some are products of direct crystallization of lamprophyric magma (rock melt); others represent older rock which has been converted by metamorphic or metasomatic action. Normal basaltic magma may be made lamprophyric by a simulation of foreign material. That such a process has operated is suggested by the presence in some lamprophyres of abundant foreign rock and mineral fragments. The mafic phenocrysts commonly show strong resorption indicating they were not in equilibrium with the adjacent liquid. Early formed mafic crystals may settle out of a deep, slowly crystallizing magma. Clusters of these may be reincorporated in the late alkali-rich fraction of the melt just before it is erupted to form lamprophyre at higher levels.

Some normal basaltic dikes appear to have been transformed to lamprophyre after solidification. This metamorphic or metasomatic change could have been accomplished by vapors or fluids which were driven out from the deeper crystallizing portions to permeate and alter the solidified portions above. Similar emanations from deeply buried granitic masses may be channelled along dikes of basalt or diabase in the overlying rocks and convert them to lamprophyres.

Some bodies of lamprophyre which resemble dikes may not actually be intrusive. They may have formed when solution or fluids from depth moved up along fracture and reacted with the adjacent rock and converted it to lamprophyre. See DIABASE, IGNEOUS ROCKS, METASOMATISM. [C. A. C.]

## Lancefield differentiation scheme

An accurate means of identifying most streptococci. The procedure was determined by Rebecca C. Lancefield and it applies to the streptococci, the  $\beta$  hemolytic types which have major significance. Strains from many sources can be classified in terms of their natural hosts with al-

though to produce disease in this host as well as in other hosts. However, the immunochemical (serologic) differentiation system of Lancefield depends on the presence within the bacterial cell of a specific carbohydrate, the so-called C substance which determines the group. The definition of the group depends on the precipitation of the C substance in a clear bacterial extract with appropriate rabbit antisera. Designations of the group now 13 in number extend from A through O with two alphabetic omissions.

The streptococci of Group A are almost always responsible only for human illness. Most strains of Group B are from animal and are especially important in producing mastitis or udder infection in cows. Group C is unusual in that it includes both animal and human pathogens and distinction cannot be made by this method alone. Group D streptococci are found in dairy products and in the intestinal tract of man and animals. They are a cause of urinary tract infection and of subacute bacterial endocarditis which is an infection of the inner lining of the heart, especially the heart valves. Subacute bacterial endocarditis is a complication of congenital or rheumatic heart disease. Both human diseases represent the ability of ordinarily benign organisms to be pathogenic when there is some basic deformity which interferes with normal function. Streptococci of Groups E and N are found in milk cream and cheese but have no relation to infection. Groups F and G are occasionally human pathogens while H and K strains do not provoke illness. People may harbor those of Group H, K, and O which are almost uniformly innocuous. Dogs likewise merely carry Group M streptococci but canine skin can be caused by strain of Groups L and C.

F. Griffith at the same time the Lancefield system was developed utilized agglutination to define types within each group. Agglutination is a serologic method in which intact organisms are clumped by appropriate typed rabbit antisera. There was a time when both methods were used one for the determination of group and the Lancefield precipitation test with type electively. Griffith's agglutination test. It was later noted that the type found by both methods need not be in complete agreement. This led to the study by Dr. Lancefield and her associates of the bacterial antigen or chemical substance concerned. It was found that two proteins, M and T, were involved in differentiating type within groups. Only the M substance. The Lancefield method was specific for each type of microorganism while more than one T substance could be present.

Serologic classification is not commonly employed since it is time consuming and not always necessary. In a clinical hospital laboratory, for example, streptococci can be satisfactorily and rapidly recognized by their typical appearance on vital growth medium. Appropriate signs and symptoms in the patient are supportive evidence.



ble economies in such services as transportation power and waste disposal. As deterioration of the central city and in residences, stores, service establishments and industries favored the suburbs for new location. This situation makes forcefully evident the need for public decisions and public controls on major aspects of land use in the central city and in the mushrooming suburbs of every metropolitan center of the country.

**Principal planning areas.** Early land use planning effort sprang from two apparently distinct and different problems areas. (1) rural areas where the planning task has been concerned largely with giving more conscious direction to the use of land for natural productive purposes (crops, forage, forests, wildlife, fisheries, or water flow) and the goal has been to direct the use of the land in accordance with its capability; and (2) urban areas where the planning task has been principally concerned with space arrangement of major urban land uses. In this case the goal has been to design the city layout to achieve greater convenience, safety and economy in urban living.

Rural land planning emphasizes the development of land use pattern which serve man's long range needs and at the same time reflect the natural resource capability that is the physical and biological limits beyond which long-run depletion of the land resource will result. Increasingly private land operators are learning that production according to land capability is good business. There is also increasing recognition by the public that there is a major common interest in intelligent rural land use planning. The Federal government provides various inducements and aids designed to improve rural land use. Local and state governments are experimenting with land use controls, for example zoning lands for forest and pasture which are unsuitable for crop, designating lands well suited to farming as agricultural and marking out for future subdivision those areas best adapted for that purpose.

City land use planning originating from the desire for the city beautiful has moved from an emphasis upon aesthetic design to functional design. It attempts to anticipate long range needs for urban services through the study of growth trends and to design a pattern of land use which will promote convenience and economy in supplying urban services as well as an aesthetically pleasing space arrangement. Recent policies of both Federal and state governments encourage cities to conduct a continuing planning program.

Since the great depression of the 1930s both Federal and state governments have cooperatively organized studies for the purpose of developing plans for improved productivity of land and related resource of various large natural regions of the nation. The Great Lake-Cut Over Region and the Northern Great Plains were areas early subject to such regional studies. The creation of the Tennessee Valley Authority in 1933 marked a further emphasis upon regional resource planning. TVA

and later endeavors in river basin development have had as their primary planning objective the discovery of improved economic opportunities and social amenities which could be realized by a planned use and management of the land, water and related resources.

This objective stands in contrast to the early more limited view of the city planner, forester and conservationist. The early city planner looked at the blighted city and visualized its rehabilitation. He studied trends and sought to design his city layout for the inevitable growth. He had little concern with questions of planning to promote growth. The early forester and general conservationist dealt on natural limitations and emphasized protective measures to avoid continued misuse. Later measures have been based upon land capability and scientific husbandry were formulated. The measures first emphasized the repair and rehabilitation of the physical and biotic environments which suffered from past misuse. Gradually the increase of goods and service from natural resource has become an additional justification for the conservation measure. Comprehensive regional planning now purports a positive integration objective for land planning designed to achieve maximum net social benefit (economic and noneconomic) for the use of the land now and in the future.

The growth and importance of regional resource development is indicated by the rapid expansion since World War II of Federal, state and local resource planning activities. Notable are programs in regions such as the Ohio River Basin in the Missouri River Basin, the Columbia Valley, the Central Valley of California, the Arkansas-White and Red river basin, the St. Lawrence Valley, the New England and New York region and the Delaware River Basin. In addition, hundreds of local organizations such as watershed associations, various special districts, and intergovernmental planning committees have sprung up in response to land use problems in a variety of areas. Often the smaller region may be dominated by a vigorous urban center. Here rural type resource development problems intermingle with the problem of space allocation and design of the spreading urban area. Land use planning during the latter half of the twentieth century is challenged to meet the need of a new planning area, one composed of overlapping metropolitan areas and involving new admixture of rural and urban land use problem.

**Land use planning and the future.** Current trends in land use planning suggest fundamental premises in its concepts and practices which should characterize the future. First, the problem of integrating the process of urbanization, urban planning and the resource considerations of rural planning will demand increasing attention of professional planner, governmental official and interested citizen. Conceptual and methodological interchange and adaptation should take place between the pace design orientation of the city planner and the resource capability orientation

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# Landing ships and craft

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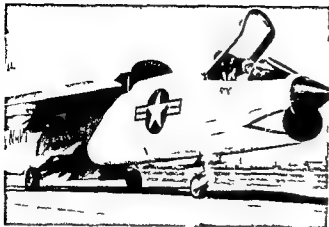


Fig 1 Typical tricycle landing gear on F8U-2 Crusader (Chance Vought Aircraft Inc)

the ground contributing to ease in loading and to passenger comfort and (4) at touchdown the position of the main gear aft of the center of gravity results in no pitching the airplane over onto the nose gear reducing the angle of attack and reducing the possibility of the airplane's rebounding into the air.

Another arrangement still used extensively is the tail wheel landing gear (Fig 2). Two main gear struts are located slightly ahead of the center of gravity well spaced laterally to provide lateral stability. A third wheel is mounted on the fuselage near the aft end of the airplane. This arrangement is usually lighter than the tricycle landing gear. It suffers in comparison with a tricycle gear because of the increased problems associated with vision, ground maneuvering and braking.

Other arrangements are often used because of special problems associated with a particular design. The bicycle landing gear used on the Boeing B-47 is an example. This gear requires outriggers for lateral stability. A gear of this type will usually be heavier than the more conventional type but often is attractive for overall performance. Research airplanes such as the X-2 and X-15 often use skids instead of wheels because ground maneuvering is less important on airplanes of this type. Space and temperature considerations control the choice. Helicopters and VTOL aircraft often use unconventional arrangements because many of the considerations for ground maneuvering are less important.

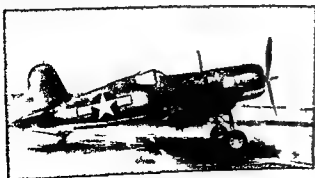


Fig 2 Typical tail wheel landing gear on F4U-4 Corsair

**Landing gear design.** The primary working part of any landing gear is the shock strut which supplies the force as the airplane sinks toward the ground turning the flight path from one intersecting the ground to one parallel to the ground. The most efficient shock strut is the oleo-pneumatic strut (Fig 3). It operates by generating a force as oil is pushed through an orifice. When the wheel of the landing gear first contacts the ground the tire deflects to stop the unprung mass of the landing gear (tire wheel brake and piston of the oleo). As the airplane continues to sink the piston in the shock strut forces oil through an orifice causing a force which changes the airplane's flight path.

To obtain a better force-time relationship a metering pin is often used to change the orifice

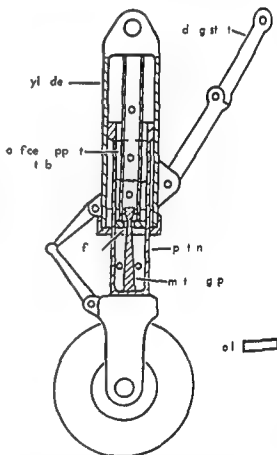


Fig 3 Drag damper oleo-pneumatic shock strut

size as the shock strut extends the gear after it is compressed and also acts as an air spring suspension system for the airplane during taxiing.

It alternates to the oleo leaf springs, rubber springs and oil spring have been successfully used.

To provide for the drag load during braking and the impulse drag load due to spin up of the wheel after initial contact, strength must be provided usually by a drag strut. If the wheel can be categorized as a nose wheel or tail wheel, it is likely to be provided with a metering pin to prevent shimmy usually by the use of a shimmy damper. See Air



carried on the main deck. The LST 1173 shown in Fig 4 is 446 ft long and displaces 7800 tons.

The LSM (Landing Ship Medium) is a beaching ship with an open well and a bow ramp. Its design was derived from a combination of LST and LCU. The LSM is 204 ft long and displaces 1095 tons.

The LSMR or Landing Ship Medium (Rocket) is a conversion of the LSM. The LSMR provides close in fire support with a barrage of rocket bombardment for an assault landing operation. The LSMR is 204 ft long and displaces 1276 tons.

**Landing craft.** The LCU or Landing Craft Utility (assault) discharges tanks, mobile equipment, general cargo, and personnel directly onto the beach. The LCU is designed for limited voyages and usually is carried to the unloading area by an LPD, LSD, or LST. The LCU 1613 shown in Fig 5 is 135 ft long and has a combat landing displacement of 370 tons.

The LCM (Landing Craft Mechanized) is used in a ship-to-shore operation and lands on a beach to discharge vehicles or cargo. A typical LCM is 74 ft long with a maximum displacement of 127 tons and is designed to carry one heavy tank, 60 tons of cargo, or 200 troops.

The LCPL or Landing Craft Personnel (Lead) is a dual-purpose boat for guiding other landing craft in an assault wave in a ship-to-shore operation. The LCPL is 36 ft long and has a capacity of 4500 lb of cargo. As a personnel boat, it has a crew of 3 and carries 17 men.

**Amphibious vehicles.** The LVT (Landing Vehicle Tracked) is an armored amphibian. It can negotiate a surf up to 15 ft high and discharge 34 men inland. The LVT-5 (Fig 6) is 30 ft long

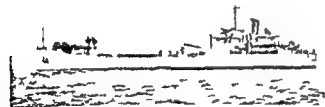


Fig 4 The LST 1173 discharging tanks and other vehicles directly onto a beach (Official U.S. Navy photograph)



Fig 5 The LCU 1613 used to discharge vehicles, equipment, and personnel directly onto a beach (Official U.S. Navy photograph)

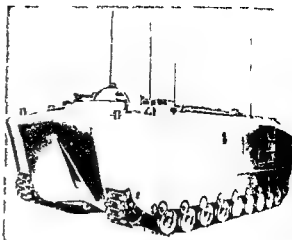


Fig 6 The LVT-5, an armored amphibian (Official U.S. Navy photograph)



Fig 7 The DUKW developed for landing on sandy beaches (Official U.S. Signal Corps photograph)

and has a cargo capacity of 6 tons in water or 9 tons on land.

The BARC (Barge Amphibious Reupply Cargo) is a wheeled amphibious vehicle for over-the-beach handling of cargo. Used by the U.S. Army, it is 63 ft long and has a cargo capacity of 60 tons.

The BDLIX (Beach Discharge Lifter) is used by the U.S. Army to carry vehicular and other types of cargo on the main deck for ship-to-shore landing operation. When retracting from the beach, it is assisted by a hydraulically operated ram. The BDLIX is 338 ft long, displaces 4126 tons, and is capable of transoceanic voyage.

The DUKW (Truck Amphibian 2 1/2 Ton), commonly called duck, is used by the U.S. Army to transport cargo or personnel on land or water (Fig 7). It is 36 ft long and has a cargo capacity of 5175 lb. *U.S. SHIP NAVAL* [HJM]

## Landscape architecture

Defined by Charles Eliot, one of America's first landscape architects, as the art of arranging and fitting land for human use and enjoyment, Landscape architecture is an applied art founded on the premise that use and beauty are compatible and that neither is complete without the other.

The exercise of the landscape architect is similar to that of a building architect in its consultation, preparation of reports, plan, specification,

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Lantern slides

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 m a t a l l y m m e h o l d e r s c a r v l o n g r o l l s f i l m  
 a n d f i l m t r i p

M i d e s p a t i c u l a r l y n t h e m u n a t r i e c a n b  
 e w e d i n h a n d i e r o r t a b l e w e The  
 f o r m e h a v e m e a f o a l l m n a t i m t h e l d e  
 p o n t i n g t t t h l y r t a l a m p o r u g l m p  
 i n l d e d i n t h e s w e r f e l d l a t t r a l l  
 o u t l e t o p r a t n a n d a m p l e m a g i f g l e n  
 T h e y a r m a d ( r g l e r t e r l d e T b l e  
 s e w e a r r e a l l y m l l p o s e t r s t a n g n i m a g e  
 f m d e a t m g n i f a t f o r e w i g a r e a  
 p r o j e c t r n a n d h a m a n u ) o r a u t m a t c  
 s l i d e c h n g e L a r g e d p l a y t r a s p a r e n c e ( 1 8  
 b y 6 0 f t t h c a e f t h e h l a l C o l a m a t  
 G r a n d C e n t a l S t a t i o n n N w Y o k C t y ) u  
 b a n k o f l i g h t g i u n f o r m i l l u m i n a t i o n r a  
 d i s s u n g a c r e e n i m m e d i a t e l y b e h n d t h e p i c t u r e  
 [ w c ]

Lanthanide contraction

The n a m e g e n t o a n u n u a l p h n m e n n e n  
 u t r e d i n t h r e e r t h e e s f e l e m e n t T h e  
 d o f t h a t m o l t h m e m b e r o f t h e e r i d e a  
 g o l t h a s t h e t m n u m b e r i n c r e a s e s  
 S t a r t i n g w i t h e l e m e n t 5 8 n t h e p e d i c t b l t h e  
 b l n c n g e l t r u f i l l i n a n e r i m p l e t e 4/  
 h l l a s t h h r g e n t h e u l m e a e A c  
 c o r d g t o t h e t h e o r y o f a t m t u t r t h i h e l l  
 n f l l 1 4 e l e t r a s o t a r t i n w i t h e l e m t 5 8  
 r u m t h r e a e 1 4 t r u r r e a r t h s L s t h a n m  
 h n l e t n s t h e 4/ h l l m h a l a d  
 l i t m 1 4 T h e 4/ e l e c t r p l y l m t r l e  
 i h m e l a l e c e a l l r a e e r t h c a n h a e 3  
 l e t s t e r s e c c h e l l n d t h e y a l l e s t  
 a t r a l e n t n o l u o n A s t h e c h a g n t h e  
 u l e i n r e a s e t h e r a r e e r t h s a l l  
 l e t n e p l l e d n e l e r t h m l u t h a t  
 t h r a d f t h e r e a t h o n d a s l i g h t l y s  
 t h m p u n d g r t h e r a r e t h r e A y  
 g n m p d t t h a r e e r t h y l l e k e l y t  
 t l i z e w i t h t h m s t r u c t u r e a s y a t h e r  
 e t h l l w e r t h e l t i c p r a m t e b m e  
 m i l l e r d t h e r y t a l d n e r a t h c m p n d  
 p d e i b e s T h i s e n t r a t i o n o f t h e  
 l a t t e p m t e k n a t h e l n t h d n  
 t a t n F m n y m p u d t h e l i t p a m  
 t d e a l p r t w a y a r t l r e v a d  
 w h a t h o r t n h m t g e e d f r w  
 v l l e s f m d e l o p F q e t l v b t h e r t l  
 l f r m c n b o b e r v e d f n u m b t o f t h  
 l m t F o t h r n t h a r t h e e s  
 f p t l r i t t o e t t b m a y o f  
 t h p r m t d t e r n g t h p p e r t i e f a  
 i b t c e a b e k p t t a t w h i t h l a t t  
 p s g n b r i d z m l l i e m t a c r s  
 t h e e s

T h t m d s o r a d f a t m a r e n t  
 l r l d f i e d T h a t m n b e p l r i e d b y t h e



**Debris fall** A relatively free downward or forward falling of unconsolidated or poorly consolidated earth or rocky debris constitutes this type. Debris falls are common along undercut banks of rivers from walls of rapidly eroding gullies and in steep excavations.

**Rockslide** This type applies to any downward and usually rapid movement of newly detached segments of the bedrock sliding on bedding or any other plane of separation. Rockslide may form wherever dipping strata or jointed rocks are interrupted downslope by any kind of cut. They include some of the greatest of recorded landslides. A rockslide in the Gros Ventre River valley of Wyoming in 1925 (Fig. 2) for example displaced 50 000 000 yd<sup>3</sup> for a total of about 2000 ft down a dip slope of 18-21° and dammed the Gros Ventre River. See **ROCK MECHANICS**.

**Rockfall** The relatively free falling of a newly detached segment of bedrock of any size from a cliff or steep slope is called rockfall. Rockfalls are common along headwalls of glacial cirques and on vertical cliffs. They are a constant hazard on vertical rock cuts along transportation routes where the fall of a block weighing even a few pounds may disable a vehicle or kill its occupant. Many of the world's large landslides have been combinations of rockslide and rockfall. Rockfalls into fiords and mountain lakes sometime produce enormous waves capable of demolishing waterfront villages. See **ENGINTECH**.



Fig. 2 Gros Ventre landslide of July 23 1925 showing scar and lower part of slide debris in Colby Wyoming (USGS)

**Prevention and control of landslides** This depends primarily on avoidance of unsuitable construction in areas of old slides or recognizable mass movement hazard. Other basic measures for prevention and control include excavation to remove fallen or unstable material drainage of unstable or potentially unstable material to reduce weight and increase bearing resistance and to prevent additional water from gaining access to dangerously placed masses placement of retaining structure such as piling buttresses retaining walls cribbing and wire fences or netting to keep fallen rocks off communication routes. Warning devices are sometimes used to close railroad blocks

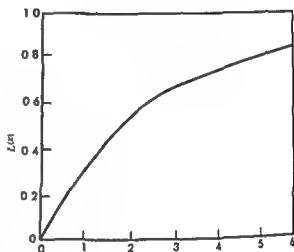
when fallen rocks or debris slides enter a right of way [CFSS]

**Bibliography** *Landslides and Engineering Practice* NAS NRC Publ. 544 Highway Research Board Spec. Rep. 29 1958 C. F. S. Sharpe *Landslides and Related Phenomena* 1938

## Langevin function

A mathematical function which is important in the theory of paramagnetism and in the theory of the dielectric properties of insulators. The analytical expression for the Langevin function displayed in the accompanying figure 1

$$L(x) = \coth x - 1/x$$



Plot of Langevin function

If  $x \ll 1$   $L(x) \approx x/3$ . The paramagnetic susceptibility of a classical (non quantum mechanical) collection of magnetic dipoles is given by a Langevin function as is the polarizability of molecules having a permanent electric dipole moment. In the quantum mechanical treatment of paramagnetism the Langevin function is replaced by the Brillouin function. For further discussion see **DIELECTRIC CONSTANT** **PARAMAGNETISM** [FARF]

## Langmuir Child law

A law governing space charge limited flow of electron current between two plane parallel electrodes in vacuum when the emission velocities of the electrons can be neglected. It is often called the three halves power law and is expressed by the formula

$$j(\text{amp/cm}^2) = \frac{\epsilon}{9\pi} \left( \frac{2e}{m} \right)^{1/2} \frac{V^{3/2}}{d^2} = 2.33 \times 10^{-6} \frac{V(\text{volts})^{3/2}}{d(\text{cm})^2}$$

Here  $\epsilon$  is the dielectric constant of vacuum  $-e$  the charge of the electron  $m$  its mass  $V$  the potential difference between the two electrodes  $d$  their separation and  $j$  the current density at the collector electrode or anode. The potential difference  $V$  is the applied voltage reduced by the difference in



## Atomic and Ionic radii of rare earth metals

El m nt	II 3+	A n	Met l cry t l	M t H e	f A
Sc			l p	171	1680
Y			lcp	1837	17780
La	1061		l p	188	18691
Ce	1011		fcc	1818	
P	1013		l p	1833	1801
Nd	099		l p	1890	18139
Pm	099				
Sm	0961		l n l p	1810	17943
F	090		l c	1991	
Cd	0938		lcp	18180	1786
Th	093		l p	1800	166
Dy	0908		l j	179	1715
Ho	0894		lcp	17887	148
Er	0881		lcp	17791	17310
Tm	0869		l p	17688	137
Yt	088		f	1797	
Lu	0818		lcp	1716	111

D t f om D H T m p l t i C l H D l n  
 J Am Ch Soc 65 37 39 194  
 b D t f m F H Sp d l n g A H D n a n k W  
 He r m n n i C y i 9(7) 9 563 19 6 lcp l e g o n l  
 l o d y r e l l  
 D t f m k W H m n D t l t d  
 l l d f m t m l l l  
 d D t f om k W H m D t l t l b  
 t w l y r s

neighboring atoms and there is no clear cut bound-  
 ary between the electrons associated with one  
 atom and another. Therefore the atomic radii will  
 vary somewhat from compound to compound and  
 the absolute values depend on the method of cal-  
 culation. However if most of the parameters are  
 assumed constant and the difference in lattice pa-  
 rameters in the rare earth crystalline series is at-  
 tributed to the rare earth ion or atom then the  
 lanthanide contraction becomes clearly evident. Al-  
 though scandium and yttrium are not members of  
 this series the information is usually wanted at the  
 same time and is given for completeness. The  
 atomic radii of the trivalent ion and the metal  
 atom are given in the accompanying table. See  
 PERIODIC TABLE RARE EARTH ELEMENTS [3 HSP]

## Lanthanum

Element number 57 lanthanum La is a metallic  
 element that is the second most abundant of the  
 rare earth group. Its atomic weight is 138.92 and  
 the naturally occurring element is made up of the

stable isotopes  $\text{La}^{139}$  0.089% and  $\text{La}^{138}$  99.91%.  
 It was discovered in 1839 by C. C. Moander. It oc-  
 curs associated with other rare earths in monazite  
 bastnaesite and other minerals. It is one of the  
 radioactive products of the fission of uranium  
 thorium or plutonium. It is the most basic of the  
 rare earths and can be separated rapidly from  
 other members of the rare earth series by frac-  
 tional crystallization. Considerable quantities of it  
 are separated commercially since it is an important  
 ingredient in glass manufacture. Lanthanum im-  
 parts a high refractive index to the glasses and is  
 used in the manufacture of expensive lenses. The  
 metal is readily attacked in air and is rapidly  
 converted to a white powder. For other properties  
 of the metal see RARE EARTH ELEMENTS.

Lanthanum becomes a superconductor below  
 5 K in both crystallization modification hexag-  
 onal or face centered cubic [RHE]

## Laplace's differential equation

Laplace's equation in two independent variables  $x$   
 and  $y$  is

$$\frac{\partial^2 u(x, y)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u(x, y)}{\partial y^2} = 0$$

and is of central importance in both pure math-  
 ematics and mathematical physics. A function  
 $u(x, y)$  having continuous first and second partial  
 derivatives and satisfying Laplace's equation in a  
 neighborhood of a point is called harmonic at that  
 point. If a plane piece of tinfoil has its edge kept  
 at a temperature which varies from point to point  
 but does not change with time and if the flow of  
 heat in the tinfoil is steady (that is, independent of  
 the time) the temperature  $u(x, y)$  at interior point  
 of the foil is harmonic. Likewise Laplace's equa-  
 tion determine the flow of electricity (the potential  
 is similarly harmonic) and the flow of any incompressible fluid.

**Two dimensional relations** If  $f(z) = u(x, y) + iv(x, y)$  is an analytic function  $u(x, y)$  and  $v(x, y)$  are conjugate function and are harmonic (see COMPLEX NUMBERS AND COMPLEX VARIABLES). Conversely if  $u(x, y)$  is harmonic in a simply connected region  $D$  one may set

$$v(x, y) = \int_C \left( -\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dy \right)$$

where  $(x, y)$  is fixed in  $D$  and  $(x, y)$  arbitrary in  $D$ . It follows from Green's theorem that the integral over a path in  $D$  independent of the path so  $v(x, y)$  is uniquely defined throughout  $D$ . The function  $u(x, y)$  and  $v(x, y)$  are conjugate in  $D$  and  $f(z) = u + iv$  is analytic there. Under the condition that  $C$  now is a regular Jordan curve in  $D$  if  $n$  denotes the interior normal of  $C$  the equation  $\partial u / \partial n = -\partial v / \partial s$  follows from the Cauchy-Riemann equation when  $e$

$$\int_C \frac{\partial v}{\partial s} ds = - \int_C \frac{\partial u}{\partial s} ds = - \int_C \left( \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{ds} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{ds} \right) ds = 0$$

The first data members of the `Cell` form a flux theorem namely that the total flux (11 at a distance  $r$ ) over  $C$  is

If  $(a, \gamma) \in \text{harm}$  in the closed  $k$ -bounded  
 by the unconf  $e, \gamma, a, d, f(\cdot)$  the  $e, r, p, i$   
 mg anal  $t, f, c, n, e, c, a$  take the  $r, a, l, i, r, t$   
 $f$  both member  $f$  the  $q$  at  $x, i, e, s, i, g$   
 Ca by  $i, t, g, a, l, f, r, m, l, a$

$$-j_0 = \rho(\cos \theta + i n \theta) \quad d = i(-j_0) d\theta$$

$$f(\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\theta) d\theta$$

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi \langle A \rangle d\theta$$

Th I t e q t n x p e s G me al e  
 theorem, th t th a erag ! (x) er y t th  
 al t the ce t r f y F m th theor m t f f  
 l s t h a fu t h r m o e t p o n t ( v )  
 a n o t h a e t n g l o c l m a m m ( o r m i m m )  
 t h r e a d n h a w a k l o c a l m x i m m (   
 m m m ) l y f d e t l y n t n t h u g h t  
 n z h o o d f ( x , y ) I f a t y ) h m i c n  
 a b o u d e d e g n D c o t t h t r e s p d  
 n g l o e d f n D t h e m m m a d m m m f  
 a ( ) o c u t h b o n d r y f D s i m x m m  
 m m m o c t r i t D t h ( x , y )  
 a t u c a l l c o n t a n t t h g h u t D

A real constant  $g$  is given by  $D$   
 If  $D$  is bounded, then with  $b$  and  $r$   $B$  and if  
 continuous  $l$   $e$   $U(x)$   $a$   $g$   $e$   $B$  the  
 Dirichlet problem in the prism of the term  $n$   $g$   $a$   
 function  $n$   $(y)$   $harm$   $n$   $D$   $tinu$   $n$   
 $D+B$   $e$   $q$   $u$   $i$   $t$   $U(y)$   $n$   $B$   $I$   $f$   $D$   $a$   $i$   $u$   $i$   
 $r$   $e$   $p$   $n$   $i$   $r$   $d$   $r$   $a$   $y$   $n$   $p$   $t$   $h$   $i$   $g$   $i$   $e$   
 $g$   $u$   $t$   $h$   $e$   $D$   $i$   $l$   $e$   $t$   $p$   $r$   $i$   $m$   $b$   $a$   $s$   $o$   $l$   $u$   $t$   $i$   $o$   $n$   $n$   $e$   $c$   $e$   $s$   $s$   $a$   $r$   $y$   
 $s$   $a$   $r$   $i$   $s$   $a$   $r$   $y$   $(b$   $t$   $h$   $e$   $b$   $e$   $f$   $i$   $t$   $i$   $m$   $m$   $a$   $d$   
 $m$   $a$   $x$   $i$   $m$   $a$   $i$   $s$   $t$   $r$   $i$   $D$ )  $n$   $q$   $e$   $i$   $f$   $D$   $i$   $u$   $i$   
 $d$   $i$   $k$   $i$   $d$   $u$   $(s$   $e$   $e$   $i$   $f$   $t$   $i$   $n$ )  $t$   $h$   $e$   $D$   $i$   $l$   $t$   
 $p$   $r$   $i$   $m$   $i$   $f$   $r$   $d$   $i$   $d$   $b$   $y$   $P$   $o$   $n$   $t$   $e$   $g$   $a$   $i$   $l$

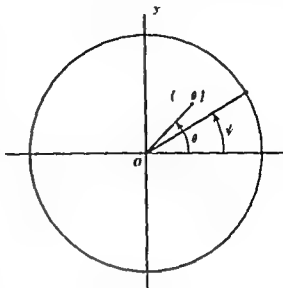
$$(\phi) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{(1-r^2)U(\psi) d\psi}{(\theta-\psi)^2 + r^2}$$

spol oo d n te ( θ ) with pole th c t  
 D ll D a les l m t ry gio b t w th  
 mouth bo d ry B th D hl t p bl m l d  
 by C een f cu l

$$I = \frac{1}{r} \int U(\xi, \eta) \frac{\partial g}{\partial s} ds(\xi, \eta)$$

here denotes the number of

Tree       $\xi$     $\eta$     $g(\xi, \eta)$     $h$     $r$     $m$     $D$   
 cept    $\xi$     $\eta$     $g(\xi, \eta)$     $h$     $r$     $m$     $D$   
 and in the neighborhood of  $(y)$   $h$   $th$   $f$   $r$   $m$   
 $g(\xi, \eta)$   $+$   $(\eta - y)$   $+$   $g(\xi, \eta)$   $wh$   $e$   
 is  $t$  smooth,  $th$   $f$   $r$   $m$   $l$   $be$   $p$   $ed$   $i$   
 $r$   $m$   $l$   $mes$   $in$   $t$   $ad$   $f$   $(\partial g / \partial \eta)$   $d$



C l o d k P f d

Further series) can be used for the solution of the Dirichlet problem for a region.

n Dimensional relations Th f g grema k  
ppl t Laj e i t n wtl tw nipe lnt  
bles th f t (t n t n t l f f roo f  
ng alyt fu t n) apply also i three r  
m re d m n Th t tte d m tne, a  
p o t d t d t n f m tte f m e s m a t i t  
(x r n) h a p e t u l d e f e d

$$d(x,y) = \min \{(-1)^2 + (1-1)^2 + (-1)^2\} = 1$$

wh h harm n e xcept in the ; nt (x a )  
 Fax pt t u h point the f c (N wt nia law  
 f gr it t n e c r t e f f l y t t d i t r i u l n n a  
 un st plo t r y p a t l t (x y z) d th e m  
 pon t (d d du/dy du d) d th e m po  
 ne t f th fo e n y d e c t n i the d r e t n a l  
 d r u e f ( y ) t h t d r e c t i n S P O T E  
 T L S (MATHEMATICS) SPHERICAL H A R T O N I C S

Bbl g phv O D kell ss F dat [JLW]  
t t t The y 1909 of 10

### Laplace's irrotational motion

Lapl e q i f i r t t n l m t f un  
d i m p e s i b l f i d t h p a r t i d f r e n  
i l q t n

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = 0$$

h r x x re tang l r Cart n coord-  
tes n intert l ref ne f am and

$$\phi = \phi(x, x, x, t)$$

th el ty p tent l Th fl d eloc ty c m  
p e t = the three r pect e ctangu  
l d t d t a g n by =  $\partial\phi/\partial$   
= 1...3 M ge e ll m any n rtial oordi  
nate y t m th qu t d (E d  $\phi$ ) = 0 and  
th l ty ct i v = ad  $\phi$

Element	Radius (Å)	Crystal structure	Atomic weight	Atomic number
Sc		hcp	44.956	21
Y		hcp	88.906	39
La	1.061	hcp	138.905	57
Ce	1.031	fcc	140.12	58
Pr	1.013	fcc	140.908	59
Nd	0.99	hcp	144.24	60
Sm	0.99	hcp	150.36	62
Eu	0.961	hcp	151.964	63
Gd	0.90	hcp	157.25	64
Th	1.018	fcc	232.038	90
Dy	0.91	hcp	162.50	66
Ho	0.908	hcp	164.930	67
Er	0.891	hcp	167.259	68
Tm	0.881	hcp	168.930	69
Yb	0.869	hcp	173.054	70
Lu	0.848	hcp	174.967	71

stable isotopes  $^{138}\text{La}$  0.089% and  $^{139}\text{La}$  99.911%. It was discovered in 1839 by C. G. Mosander. It occurs associated with other rare earths in monazite bastnaesite and other minerals. It is one of the radioactive products of the fission of uranium thorium or plutonium. It is the most basic of the rare earths and can be separated rapidly from other members of the rare earth series by fractional crystallization. Considerable quantities of it are separated commercially since it is an important ingredient in glass manufacture. Lanthanum is used in the manufacture of expensive electron tubes. It is readily attacked in air and is rapidly converted to a white powder. For other properties of the metal see RARE EARTH ELEMENTS. Lanthanum becomes a superconductor below 5 K in both crystallization modification hexagonal or face centered cubic. [FHS]

### Laplace's differential equation

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and is of central importance in both pure mathematics and mathematical physics. A function  $u(x,y)$  having continuous first and second partial derivatives and satisfying Laplace's equation in a neighborhood of a point is called harmonic at that point. If a plane piece of tin foil has its edge kept at a temperature which varies from point to point but does not change with time and if the flow of heat in the tin foil is steady (that is, independent of the time), the temperature  $u(x,y)$  at interior points of the foil is harmonic. Likewise, Laplace's equation describes the flow of electricity (the potential is similarly harmonic) and the flow of any incompressible fluid.

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$$\int_C \frac{\partial u}{\partial n} ds = - \int_C \frac{\partial u}{\partial s} ds = -u(x,y) \Big|_C = 0$$

neighboring atoms and there is no clear cut boundary between the electrons associated with one atom and another. Therefore the atomic radii will vary somewhat from compound to compound and the absolute values depend on the method of calculation. However, if most of the parameters are assumed constant and the difference in lattice parameters in the rare earth crystalline series is attributed to the rare earth ion or atom, then the lanthanide contraction becomes clearly evident. Although scandium and yttrium are not members of this series, the information is usually wanted at the same time and is given for completeness. The atomic radii of the trivalent ion and the metal atoms are given in the accompanying table. See PERIODIC TABLE RARE EARTH ELEMENTS [FHS]

### Lanthanum

Element number 57 Lanthanum (La) is a metallic element that is the second most abundant of the rare earth group. Its atomic weight is 138.92 and the naturally occurring element is made up of the

Let  $u = \phi(t)$  in the integral  $\int_0^\infty f(t) e^{-st} dt$ . Then the integral becomes  $\int_0^\infty f(u) e^{-su} du$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(u)$  with respect to  $u$ . If  $f(u)$  is a function of  $u$ , then the Laplace transform of  $f(u)$  is  $\int_0^\infty f(u) e^{-su} du$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(u)$  with respect to  $u$ .

$$\phi(s) = \frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty f(t) e^{-st} dt \quad 0 < s < \infty \quad (1)$$

If the integral  $\int_0^\infty f(t) e^{-st} dt$  converges for all  $s$  in the complex plane, then the integral (1) is the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  with respect to  $t$ .

$$\phi(s) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k!} f^{(k)}(0) \quad 0 < s < \infty \quad (2)$$

Here  $f^{(k)}(0)$  is the  $k$ th derivative of  $f(t)$  at  $t=0$ . Equation (2) is the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  with respect to  $t$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  with respect to  $t$ .

$$\phi(s) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{as}{k}\right)^{-k}$$

Similar result to (1). Generalizations. Certain generalizations of Eq. (1) are of interest. The first is

$$f(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \phi(t) dt \quad (3)$$

Let the function  $\phi(t)$  be the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  with respect to  $s$ . Then the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  is  $\phi(t)$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  with respect to  $s$ .

$$g(y) = f(y) = \int_0^\infty e^{-sy} \phi(s) ds$$

This equation defines  $g(y)$  as the Laplace transform of  $\phi(s)$ . The Laplace transform of  $\phi(s)$  is  $g(y)$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $\phi(s)$  with respect to  $s$ .

$$\phi(s) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty f(t) e^{-st} dt = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^\infty g(y) e^{-sy} dy$$

This is the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  with respect to  $t$ . The Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  is  $\phi(s)$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  with respect to  $t$ .

$$f(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \phi(t) dt \quad (4)$$

Let the function  $\phi(t)$  be the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  with respect to  $s$ . Then the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  is  $\phi(t)$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  with respect to  $s$ .

$$f(s) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} s^{-n}$$

This is the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  with respect to  $t$ . The Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  is  $\phi(s)$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  with respect to  $t$ .

If  $f(s) = s^n e^{-as}$  corresponding to the function  $f(t) = \frac{t^n}{n!} e^{-at}$ , then the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  is  $\phi(t) = \frac{t^n}{n!} e^{-at}$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  with respect to  $s$ .

$$\phi(s) = \frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty f(t) e^{-st} dt$$

The Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  is  $\phi(s)$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(t)$  with respect to  $t$ .

$$f(s) \geq 0, f(s) \leq 0, f(s) \geq 0, f(s) \leq 0 \quad (s < \infty)$$

Examples. Let  $f(s) = 1/s$ ,  $f(s) = 1/(s-a)$ , and  $f(s) = A$ . Then the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  is  $\phi(t) = 1$ ,  $\phi(t) = e^{-at}$ , and  $\phi(t) = At$ . This is the Laplace transform of  $f(s)$  with respect to  $s$ .

## Laplacian

The Laplacian is a differential operator  $\nabla^2 = \partial^2/\partial x^2 + \partial^2/\partial y^2 + \partial^2/\partial z^2$ . It is the Laplacian of a function  $\phi(x, y, z)$  with respect to  $x, y, z$ .

$$S/\partial + \partial S/\partial y + \partial S/\partial z = \nabla \cdot (\nabla S)$$

The Laplace operator is a differential operator. It is the Laplacian of a function  $\phi(x, y, z)$  with respect to  $x, y, z$ .

Irrotational motion implies that the fluid particles translate without rotation (like the cars on a ferris wheel) and is stated mathematically by saying  $\text{curl } \mathbf{v} = 0$  where  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}, t)$  is the velocity vector,  $\mathbf{r}$  is the position vector of a particular point in the fluid flow, and  $t$  is the time. If the fluid motion is at any time irrotational it will stay irrotational (see KELVIN'S CIRCULATION THEOREM). Thus any motion starting from rest will be irrotational. If  $\text{curl } \mathbf{v} = 0$  then  $\mathbf{v}$  may be written as  $\text{grad } \phi$  because  $\text{curl } (\text{grad } \phi)$  is identically zero. For an incompressible fluid the continuity equation (see FLUID FLOW PRINCIPLES) is  $\text{div } \mathbf{v} = 0$  hence combining this relation with irrotationality gives Laplace's equation  $\text{div } (\text{grad } \phi) = 0$ .

The velocity field  $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}, t)$  in a certain region is determined by Laplace's equation with a boundary condition given on the entire surface surrounding the region. The two most common boundary conditions are those at a solid surface and at a free surface. At a solid surface the fluid velocity normal to the surface must match the velocity of the surface normal to itself,  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{n} = v_n$ , that is  $\partial \phi / \partial n = v_n$ ,  $\mathbf{n}$  is given on the boundary. At a free surface such as one occurring between two fluids of different density the pressure must be continuous; this boundary condition in general involves the use of the nonstationary Bernoulli equation and usually leads to wave motion. See BERNOULLI'S THEOREM. WAVE MOTION IN FLUIDS [A. E. BR.]

## Laplace transform

An integral transform extensively used by P. S. Laplace in the theory of probability. In simplest form it is

$$f(s) = \int_0^\infty e^{-st} \phi(t) dt \quad (1)$$

It is thought of as transforming the determining function  $\phi(t)$  into the generating function  $f(s)$ . The variable  $t$  is real; the variable  $s$  may be real or complex  $s = \sigma + i\tau$ . As an example if  $\phi(t) = 1$  the integral converges for  $\sigma > 0$  diverges for  $\sigma \leq 0$  and  $f(s) = 1/s$ .

The Laplace transform is used for the solution of differential and difference equations for the evaluation of definite integrals, and in many branches of abstract mathematics (functional analysis, operational calculus and analytic number theory).

**Method.** Extensive table of Laplace transforms exist and the same are used as any table of integrals. To illustrate how a differential equation may be solved to extract from such a table can be used

$$\begin{aligned} \text{A } f(s) &= 1/(s-a) & \phi(t) &= e^{at} \\ \text{B } f(s) &= 1/(s^2+1) & \phi(t) &= \sin t \end{aligned}$$

Suppose it is required to find a solution  $y(t)$  of

$$y''(t) + y(t) = 2e^t \quad \left( y' = \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2}, y' = \frac{dy}{dt} \right) \quad (2)$$

such that  $y(0) = 1$ ,  $y'(0) = 0$ . Denote the Laplace transform of the unknown function  $y(t)$  by  $Y(s)$ . Integration by parts gives

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty e^{-st} y''(t) dt &= -y'(0) - y(0)s + s \int_0^\infty e^{-st} y(t) dt \\ &= -2 - s + s^2 Y(s) \end{aligned}$$

on the assumption that the integrated part is zero at  $t = \infty$ . Applying the Laplace transform to Eq. (2) and using A for the right hand side one obtains

$$-2 - s + s^2 Y(s) + Y(s) = \frac{2}{s-1}$$

The differential equation has become an algebraic one whose solution is

$$Y(s) = \frac{1}{s-1} + \frac{1}{s^2+1} \quad (3)$$

However a further use of the table shows that the Laplace transform of  $y(t) = e^t + \sin t$  is precisely the right hand side of Eq. (3). Assuming uniqueness one has thus obtained the required solution. Because its properties can be checked directly the unproved assumptions need not be verified.

This example illustrates the general method. The unknown function is taken as the determining function and the Laplace transform is applied to the differential (or difference) equation. There results an equation with the generating function as unknown and this must be solved. Finally the determining function must be determined from the generating function either from the table or by use of an inversion formula. In general if the original differential equation is partial in any number of independent variables one application of the Laplace transform reduces the number of the variables by one. If the equation was ordinary (one independent variable) the transformed equation is algebraic as in the above example.

**Properties.** Here are the fundamental properties of the Laplace transform.

- I There exists a number  $\sigma$  (perhaps  $+\infty$  or  $-\infty$ ) called the abscissa of convergence such that the integral in Eq. (1) converges for  $\sigma > \sigma_0$  diverges for  $\sigma < \sigma_0$ . That is, the region of convergence is a half plane (a half line if  $s$  is real).
- II The generating function is holomorphic for  $\sigma > \sigma_0$ .
- III The determining function is uniquely determined by the generating function (Ambiguity is possible only on set of measure zero).
- IV The product of two generating functions is in general a generating function. Thus if Eq. (1) holds for two pairs of functions  $f_1(s)$ ,  $\phi_1(t)$  and  $f_2(s)$ ,  $\phi_2(t)$  then the product  $f_1(s)f_2(s)$  is the transform of the convolution

$$\phi_1(t) \phi_2(t) = \int_0^t \phi_1(u) \phi_2(t-u) du$$

As was evident in the above example it is very important to be able to derive the determining



The d w l k St H m g l g h t 111  
From E L P l m F l d b k l N t of H s r y  
McG H 11 1949)

mt th United St tes m n y t m e d n s t r o d  
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y r e A t p t t h l y k n w n o l n y f l y  
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B t h C o l m b

Horned lark This d E m p h l a l p e t r i s o f  
th family Alauda s r e p e n t e d l y u m u  
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t h e p e t r y d p e n t l y e q m e  
b a r g d t t h D g t h m t m e a s o n  
t h m a l f q u i l y n g g e m e m k b l e r t i  
c a l f l g h t a g n a t t o f m b a n d t e m t g i a  
b r e a t h t k g d e t p u l l m r u f f l e d l d o  
o c k b f o t s m t e H e d l r k g a t e t  
l g f l o c k d r i n g t h w t S e P a s s r i f o r i e s  
R o u t

### Larmor precession

A p r e s s i o n f i t h e m t o f b a r g e d p a r t l e t  
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t h e o m ( L a r m 1897) t t t h a t f l t n  
m a g n e t i c f i e l d f i r t h m o t o  
m a u f r m m a g n t f i l d H t f i t r d t H  
t h a m a p o s i b l e m t n s t h a b e f i H  
p i f t h e p e p o t f m m p e s  
o f g l r i g n y

$$= -H/2m \quad (1)$$

h e c / c t h e m a g n t d e f i t h l t n h a g e  
l t m g n t u t d m t h e l t s c  
m T h e f q u y w z a l l d t h L a r m f

q n y a d t n n r e a l l y e q u a l t t i m 110  
M e p r e r t e d

T h e L a r m t h e o r m s d r i v e d i n n u m r o u  
t e x t f r i t l e p r e c i s a f a n e l e c t n m o v i g i n  
c i r l a r l t f r a d i u s r a l m a f i x e d n u c l i  
w t h H p i l e d n r m l t t h e p l a n e f t h o r b i t  
t h e d e t a t i o n f l l w t l c t r i p t a l f r  
h l d i g t l e c t r n i n t h i t m t i j l n o r a l  
s t h e m f t h C o l m l f r e Z / a n d t h  
L o r n t z f o r c - ( c ) w H T l t e f t

$$\omega = \pm || H / \mu m ||^2 + (Z e^2 / m^2) ||^2 - ( H / \mu m ) \\ = \pm (\omega_L^2 + \omega_c^2)^{1/2} + \omega_L \quad (2)$$

w h e o s t l n g u l a r f r e q u e n c y i n t h e a l e n c e o f  
H H m o o \omega\_L (h o u n d e l e c t r o n a n d f r t r l r i n  
H) t h a p p r o x i m a t e g l a r f r e q u y

$$\omega = \pm \omega_L + \omega_L \quad (3)$$

w h i l t l L a r m r t h e o r m F a f r e e r i n  
l u d e l e c t ( n C l m t f o r ) t l a p p r o x i  
m t l a k d w n l t d r e c t s o l u t i o n f t h e  
e q u t n t l i n g m a r a d t h l e r e t z f r e  
l d \omega = - H m c T l s t w e t l L a r m f r e  
q u e n c y n d s c a l l e d t h e y l t r n f r e q u e n c y  
l r i t u l f a c t u a l i t a t o r

l t t g t l L a r m t h e o r m u w a m a d e f  
t h p l a s p o l e m t s l l H i a p p l i e d  
f r n t l y l w l y i t a n b e g e d t h a t t h e m t n  
i t l m e a i n t h a l n e f l l e x c e p t f r t h e  
t y p e i t m f t L a r m r p r e c e s s l l w e v e r  
d d n a p p l t u n f l l m v h a g f e x a m  
p l l a r t i n t a e l l p l i n

F r a i m p o r t a n t a p p l c a t n f t h L a r m r  
t h e o r m s D I A M A G E T I c l s F I R C T R O  
t o t i v i n v a c u l l s [ E A F K ]

B b l g a p h y G J o o T h o t l l h y s i s 3 d  
d 1958

### Larnite

A r a r n e l a t m a n r a l w t h m p o t i C a z  
S i O w h i h w r g a l l y d e c r i e d i n 1909 f m  
s a w t H i l l C t y A n t r m l r l n d W e l l f r m e d  
t l h t l n l r e d l u t l e p r n e o f  
t w m u t u a l l y r e p d i c u l a l a g e s w t h p o l y  
n t h t i t w n g p r l l e t n o f t h m n d e t e  
m n l s y m m t r y T h r e e a r t h l e a l m j  
t s f t h i s a m e m p t i n a r d e s t a t e d a  
a \beta n d y L a r t p r o b a b l y r e p o d t n C a z  
S O T n f r m a t n t t h e y p h a m a y l e p o  
d u d b y h e a t i n g b y h o c k A t S e a t H i l l l a r n t e  
a t i m t e l y a t e d w t h p u r i t m e l l i e  
m w t d p l s a l m t o n t a t z m  
l t h a l b e d c r b d f r m C r e t i m e n a r  
H r d C a l f a s S i l i c a t e m i n e r a l s

[ C S H U ]

### Larvacea

A l a s f t h e u b p h y l m T u n a t a c o n t i n g o f  
m n t p l a k t o c n m l w h h t h e t a l w t h  
d r a l n r o d a d n t o c h o r d p r s t t h r u g h  
t l f e T w g l l t r o m m l y p r e e n t b u t  
n t m l a c k n g T h e p d m o f t h e t e i o r  
r g e c t s g e l a t m t u n w h c h i m



## Lapping

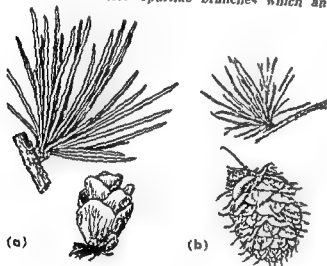
A precision abrading process used to bring a surface to a desired state of refinement or dimensional tolerance by removal of an extremely small amount of material. Lapping is accomplished by abrading a surface with a fine abrasive grit rubbed about it in a random manner. Usually less than 0.0005 in of stock is removed.

A loose unbonded grit is used. It is traversed about with a mating piece or lap of a somewhat softer material than the workpiece. The unbonded grit is mixed with a vehicle such as oil, grease, or soap and water compound. When a bonded grit is used, it may be in the form of a bonded abrasive lap or a charged lap such as cast iron or copper with the lapping compound embedded in it. In some cases abrasive covered paper laps are used.

Although some lapping is done by hand, most production work is done on a lapping machine. Various types of machines are designed for work on flat, cylindrical, and spherical surfaces. See GRINDING, MACHINING OPERATIONS [A T]

## Larch

A genus *Larix* of the pine family with deciduous needles and short spurlike branches which an-



(a)

(b)



(c)

(d)

(a) Tamarack *Larix laricina* (USDA) (b) Western larch *Larix laricina* (USDA) (c) European larch *Larix decidua* (d) Golden larch *Pseudolarix amabilis* (A H G) as illustrated by G. de Trevisan & D. Shubert, 1956

nally bear a crown of needles. The cones are more or less persistent, varying by species in size, number, and form of the cone scales. The tamarack *Larix laricina* also called hackmatack is a native species. It has erect narrowly pyramidal habit and grows in wet and moist soil in the northeastern United States west to the Lake states and across Canada to Alaska. The cones are 14-24 in. long. The tough resinous wood is durable in contact with the soil and is used for railroad ties, posts, sill, and booms. Other uses include the manufacture of excellent cabinet work, interior finish, and utility pole.

The western larch *L. occidentalis* the most important and largest of all the species grows in the northwestern United States and southern British Columbia. The cones of this species are larger, 1-1 1/2 in. long with bracts growing out beyond the cone scales. The trunk is tall and erect, sometimes attaining a height of 200 ft and a diameter of 6 ft. The western larch has an estimated stand of 20,000,000,000-30,000,000,000 board ft mostly in the national forests. The annual production of the lumber usually ranges from 200,000,000 to 300,000,000 board ft. More than one half of the production comes from Montana, the remainder from Idaho, Washington, and Oregon.

The European larch *L. decidua* has cone about twice the size of those of the tamarack and 40-50 scales to a cone, whereas tamarack has only 12-15. The European larch does better in drier soil and is the species usually planted in parks and private grounds.

Golden larch *Pseudolarix amabilis* from China is occasionally cultivated. Its leaves are deciduous, are golden yellow in the fall. The cone scales fall off one by one, leaving the central axis of the cone on the tree. See FOREST AND FORESTRY, TREES [A H C]

## Lark

Any of a group of birds, the best known are the meadowlark, the skylark, and the horned lark.

**Meadowlark.** This is either of two species of American bird of the genus *Sturnella* family Icteridae. The meadowlark is larger than a robin, stoutly built, brown streaked above with a light yellow breast crossed by a black bib. The outer tail feathers are white and are prominent in flight. Darker than the western meadowlark *S. neglecta* the eastern meadowlark *S. magna* is more commonly distinguished by song than by color. The song of the western species is distinctly different and more melodious than that of the eastern species. The range of the two species broadly overlaps in the Mississippi Valley.

**Skylark.** A European songbird *Alauda arvensis* of the family Alaudidae is famed for its parking aerial song. The skylark is a dull brown bird, not prominently marked, but readily distinguished from the horned lark by the presence of white outer tail feathers. Like other larks it is a bird of the open barren ground and is territorial in its habit.

The natural range of the skylark includes most of Europe and North Africa. It has been introduced

# Latent image

An im ble imag produced by a ph y 1 for ch m al effect f light on the di id lery tal (u u ally l shal d ) f phot g aph emul ion Th m g nber n d e r e d v ble by the proce kn w a d vel pment Fo detail f lat nt image f ema u a d d elopme t s e PHOTOGRAPHY PHOTOLYSIS (PHOTOCHEMISTRY) [K w r]

## Latente

Tb am g e by F B h nan (180 ) to the ir n rich th ring produ t of l alt in s thern In dia The t r m t ow u e d a e m p ti nal sense f the ng prod t e mpo ed pr cip lly fth o des a dhydrous o ide of r n al m m m m d m a n g e s Ir n e h r f r r g i l r n e i l g l y h m a t t e Fe O and goet t HFeO- d may be an re f iron a d ckel (Cub New Caled a) Alums u late ite is com posed f gbb te d boehm t a d a th pr i pul re of lum n m (s e BALXITF) Cl v m n al f the k of n gr p are typ lly a sociated with a d r g t ally r l i t e d to l i t e r Lat it ang from soft, earthy porou mat i l t h s d d e r e r o c k Concret ry forms f r y i g z e d h p e c m u r l y are dev l p e d T l r d e p e n d o n the o t e n t f i n x d e n d r a g from b i e t d r k e d r b w e m m l a t e g u r e S CLAY MINERALS KAOLINITE WEATHERING PROC.

Origin Lat rite i f r m d by w a t h e r n g u d r c o d s t h t l a d t the e m l f l i a l k a l e s d a l k l e e r i t h Th res h n g t r n o f a d l m u m o des h p l d f f e t a t l t e z a t from t m p r a t e l m a t e w e a t h e r i g w h c h e d p r o d c t s l a g e l l y m u r a l t h d r o l u m m o l c i e s F l y w k f o m t m p e a t e r g o c n d d i f t e i a t n a s p r f n i l a c h g (d e s l t ) n m a g b y o d r d r y k a o l z a t m t u d e s i t p l g r o n s h o w e r h w i t h t w a t h e r i g o f a l k l e l e t m y y l d g b b s t d e c t l y w i t h t p g i t h o g h m t r m e d t l y i s g l a e u g a t i n m a n y p a i f t h e w l d t r e n a : g e t f i t A t p e a l t b i o p l l u m a t e w h h g h t e m p a t u d b n d a n t a f l l e w e o a l a l a t i t w i t h p d f m k d d r y e s f d a m t l R e l f f i c i e n t o n u g o d d r a g r e q t l i t l s a p m b l n d d t d b y h t w a h l k l y o r t a l e A l m u l t i t f m b t h w i t a b l e a d m a y d e t l y d p i t I t m v b e f o d n h l l d w l l d d l p b t t h d u l d p o s t s d j e t a l l e y l l y k l u n

Parent materials Th p r n t m t l t o l g r c l y f l e n t h e m p t m f l t e w h h m a b e d e v l p e d t r m r i t y f i g n u m t a m p h r d e d m t r y r k l h k (p d u t ) l d l m n r k f t l g p o d b a u t w i n s d e r e l t g r m e d a t g o d t C o m m o l y t e x

tural d tru tural f t e f i l e p a r e t m a t r i l a r e p r e s m d a n d t l m r e r e i t n i n a l l e m r l r e m a n

Mat re l t r t i u a l l e c k f r i t i l y f r m t s y t m f a g r c u l t u r e S a n a r p a r k l e g r l a n d a r t y p i c a l n l a t e r n C l a y n t l i r i t s f i n d b e n e a t h r n f r e t a n d j u n g l v e g i a t n S e V E G E T A T I O N z c v r [ c ]

Bibl g a p h y S e B A L X I T F

## Lathe

A machine f r the r m l f m t a l r m a w r k p i l y g r i p p i n g i t s c u r e l y i n a l o l d i n g d e v a d r t i n g i t u n d s p o w r a g a i n t a s t a l l c u t t i g t o o l Th m o m y b e m r d r a l l y a l l g u d n l l y a n r e j e c t t h e t u r n i n g a f t h w r k p i e t h e r m a u a l l y l a t t a h e d p o w r f r m i c l a s n p l r e s a l r l a t e l n t r e h p e d w k p e c e s a w e l l a t r v l d r a n b e t u r n e d n a l t h M h n i n g p u s h s i s i n g l i g a n d t h r a d w h i h r e v a t n o f t h e t u r n i n g p r o c e a n a l l e p e r f m e d n a l t

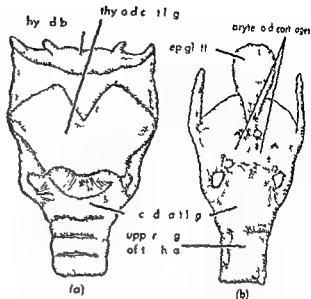
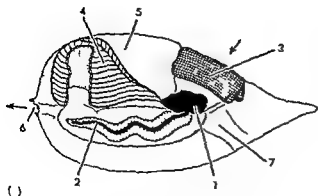
Turn g r i p m e t m a y b e c l a e d a l o n g e t h e r f t h b r i z t a l r r t a l t y p e r e f r i n g t i l t u r n i g a x i t l e w r k p e e i n t h m a h T l l a e n g i n e l a t i p i m r l y a m n a l l y p e r t e d m s h F i l l g t h g p b e t e e t l u g u n l a t e a d f l l y a t m a t i c t u n n g e q u i p m t i t h t u r t l a t h F a t t a n d l t t e d t h g l q n t y p r o d u t i n t t h a u t m t c r e w m a h

Engine lathe The tile engi e lathe n g e t s n d d e s i g n f r m m a l l b e c h a n d p e e d l t h e t l g e f l o o r t p The w k p e c m y b e h e l d b e t w e n t a p e r e d e n t s a l r t a t e d w i t h t h p w e p i d l e l y m e f a c l a m p i d e s i r u m s b e h l d a h c k e n f i x e d t o a r t i n g p l t e W h n t h w r k w u g b e t e c e n t e t h t a i l t o c k w l h h l l t h e t a t i n r y t a p r e d t e r i l m p e d f i r m l i n p l a e L o n g w k p e c e s m a y b p p t e d i n t h m d d l e b y e i t h r a t e d y e r t m e c h n l l y d r i e f l l w r e t w h i h m s w i t h c u t t i g t o o l

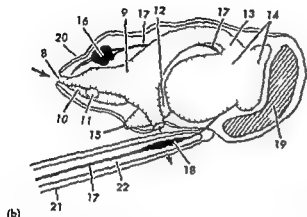
Th n g l e p o t t o o l h e l d i n a t o o l p t r b l k w h i h u p p e d n a e r l i d e a n d c a r i s g Th t l m a y b m e d e r d a l l y o l n g t d i n l l y i n r e l a t n t t h e w r k p i e

Angula ut ar p b l e d i n g t i d i n a l i a p s m y b e t b y o f f e t t n g t h t a i l t o c k o b d j m t o f a t a p r a t t a h m t n t h t a r o f t h e l a t h e w h i h a s t i t h e c l d

Turret lathe Th t l t c k o f t h e n g l a t h E p l a e d w i t h m l t d e d d x n g t o o l t h r r r e t d e g n e d s l l d e v e r l t o o l t h m l b m g a t r r t l t h Th s n g l e t o l m t a d m p n d s a l l y r e p l a e d f a f o u p t d e s g t o o l g t P w c u t m y b t k e n f m b o t h o f t h t o l m t i g t h s p d d u l l y o r m u l t a n l y Tu r e t l a t h a m a d r t l m d l w l l b z n t a l l z o n t a l t r e t f t h e c l e d a t h b r r h c k g m h i x f r r g t t h m n



Human laryngeal cartilages and ligaments (a) Front view (b) Back view (After Sappey from J Symington Quain's Elements of Anatomy vol 2 pt 2 to Gray's Anatomy 1914)



Larvacea (a) A larvacean *Oikopleura dioica* in its house 1 body of animal 2 tail 3 water intake filter 4 food concentration apparatus 5 gelatinous material of house 6 water outlet 7 emergency exit (b) body of larvacean 8 oral aperture 9 pharynx 10 endostyle 11 buccal gland 12 gill slit 13 esophagus 14 lobes of stomach 15 ventral ganglion 16 dorsal ganglion 17 dorsal nerve cord 18 caudal ganglion 19 gonads 20 oikopleuran epithelium which encloses the house 21 tail 22 otocord

posed of polysaccharides bearing amino groups but contains no cellulose. In some species this tunic is highly complex and encases the whole body in a house equipped with chambers and trawls which enables the inhabitant to filter and concentrate the finest of plankton from the sea. About 60 species are known. *Oikopleura* and *Fritillaria* are the largest genera. See TUNICATA [DPA]

## Larynx

In man the voice box. The signet shaped cricoid cartilage forms the base which rests on the trachea. The paired thyroid cartilages which form the prominent Adam's apple in front lie above the cricoid. Posteriorly there are paired pivoting cartilages the arytenoids. Each is pyramid shaped and acts as the movable posterior attachment for the vocal cord and the laryngeal muscles that regulate the cord. Two other small paired cartilages the cuneiform and the corniculate also lie behind the thyroid. The lid of the box is the epiglottis a leaf shaped cartilage with its stem inserted into the thyroid notch. See CARTILAGE.

The larynx is a derivative of the primitive gill bar system of vertebrate. Its original function is to act as a protective phincter at the air passage a function still retained in lower animals. Only in higher vertebrates has phonation been acquired and is almost limited to mammals since in birds the sound is produced lower in the airway. See SPEECH. See also LARYNX DISORDERS THYROID GLAND [FCST]

## Larynx disorders

Diseases of the larynx manifest themselves by hoarseness and by stridor a form of noisy breathing caused by localized narrowing in the larynx or trachea.

Laryngitis is an inflammation of the mucous membrane of the larynx always associated with hoarseness. It frequently occurs with common colds and as a complication of other inflammatory diseases of the upper respiratory system. In diphtheria the formation of a membrane of fibrin leukocytes destroyed tissue and bacteria can cause severe respiratory difficulties which might demand tracheotomy. The development of chronic laryngitis is fostered by a chronic irritation such as that caused by smoking.

Hoarseness is also a manifestation of paralysis of the recurrent laryngeal nerve of the vagus (see NERVOUS SYSTEM) which is easily damaged upon surgical removal of a goitre.

Benign tumors of the larynx occur in the younger age group. A tumorlike formation of the vocal cord known as angioneuroma often accounts for the hoarseness of people who abuse the voice. Cancer of the larynx is not uncommon in man but is frequently of a slowly growing type and the outlook is often good. The highest incidence is in males over 60. [FWR]



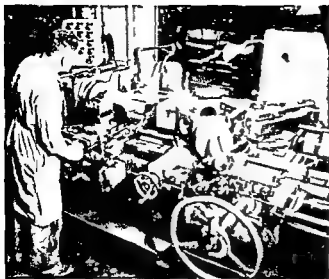


Fig 1 Saddle type turret lathe (Jones and Lamson Mach Co)

in which the workpiece is held. The headstock of the lathe machine is constructed so that bar stock may be slid through it and the collet on line with the turning axis of the lathe. The collet closes holding the piece firmly. Chucking type machines grasp a unit size workpiece in a chuck or jawed device. Chucking devices permit work of relatively large diameters to be machined.

Horizontal machine may be further classed as being either of the ram or saddle type, a designation referring to the manner in which the turret is mounted on the machine. On the ram machine the turret is mounted on a ram or slide which rides on a saddle. When the turret is indexed for successive operation the saddle acts as a guide for the ram in its strokes to and from the work. On the saddle type machine designed without a ram the turret mount directly on the saddle which slides on the bedways of the lathe (Fig 1). Ram type lathes with their short turret travel are generally of lighter construction than the saddle type. Excessive overhang of the ram reduces tool rigidity. Fast in operation they perform best on small diameter work and light chucking job. The rigid construction and the longer stroke of the saddle type lathe enable it to handle both longer and heavier bar and chuck work than the ram type machine.

The vertical turret lathe similar in principle to the horizontal machine is capable of handling heavier and bulkier workpieces. The vertical machine is constructed with a rotary horizontal work table whose diameter normally designates the capacity of the machine. Machine table range from 30-74 in in diameter. A cross rail mounted above the table carries a turret which indexes in a vertical plane with tools that may be fed either across or downward (Fig 2). The cross rail may also carry a vertical swiveling ram with a non-indexing tool holder which feeds in a manner similar to the turret. Below the cross rail a side head with an indexing tool holder is sometimes provided. The tool may be fed in horizontally or moved vertically.

Tools may be operated simultaneously either manually or by power.

**Automatic screw machines** When a high production rate of relatively small turned parts is required automatic screw machines are used. The screw machine was originally developed from the lathe for the purpose of more economical manufacture of screws and bolts. The name has persisted even though numerous partially or completely finished products are produced on them. Generally these machines are classified as single spindle or multiple spindle automatic. The usual machine is of the horizontal type.

The single spindle machine is constructed to feed bar stock through the hollow machine spindle and collet similar to a turret lathe. When the bar meets a stop the collet closes on the piece. The manner in which the cutting tools are held may vary. Usually a small five or six position turret or drum indexes and feeds tools longitudinally against the end of the rotating workpiece. Turret tools may include drills, reamers, hollow mill, and counter boring tools. At times a single-threading die mounted on line with the spindle is used.

Usually two independent cam actuated cross slides front and rear are provided to hold forming, grooving or cut off tool. Turret indexing actuation of the collet, feeding of stock and spindle clutch operations are automatic. Machine operations commonly performed include facing, drilling, reaming, forming and knurling. Special attachments permit such operations as milling, index drilling or thread chasing to be performed.

Multiple spindle automatics employ several machine spindles arranged in a circular pattern. Each spindle is equipped to hold stock in a manner similar to a single spindle machine. In some instances automatically operating chucks capable of holding irregularly shaped workpieces replace the collet type chucks. Standard machines may have as many as eight rotating spindles. These in turn index in a



Fig 2 Vertical turret lathe (Bridgman Company)

am about a n n r t i n g t u r r e t w h i h l d a  
et of utt g tool A a l p u n d l i d e v  
d p r g r e a r d e a r r i r e e i e m  
h g o p e r a t n a e p e f r e m d l t h t r r t  
o o l s m u l t a e c l y t o o l l e t e d m m  
n t u a p e f r m m t h e r e s p e c t i v e p e r a  
i m t h a w k p e e s C l i d e s  
u o u e d a r g t a n g l e s t h p u n d l a r r y t h e  
r m n g r o o g e t o f f o u l  
Th t m f t h l m t n p l i t h l l w a n e  
r u h p r g a m m g a t i n a d e i g n d  
l o o l t r n g e t h t i m e r e q u i r e d p r o d i e  
o f i n h e d p e c B y d i d n g l n g e t r i w  
m m p e r a t n s t h e y e l n g t i m m a y l r e  
d u e d V h i m p e r a t p e r f r m d n t h  
m a h u e e g e r a l t h m e a t h e d n n  
m g l m d l e a t m a t  
A n i m p l e p n d l m h e s f t h m  
m m m a t h i k g t p e e n t r t e d w i t h a  
m v a l 6 p d l A h z x t a l r a l a t t l e  
h l d i n g t h e r t i g c h u k i d e e i n d t h e e r t  
p n d l e s w i t h a d f f r n t p a t n l e n g p  
f r m e d i h t i n T h m a h e n t r i t e d  
t b d l m u h l a r g e w k p e e s t h a h v t a l  
a t o u m m y m o d l t h p e e d f e e d a n d  
d i e c t f r t a t f r e a h p d l m l a n  
m y b a e d f m p t a t t l e t T h  
p r m e l t n i t h e t f e e d a n d p e d f  
t h p t n b e p r f o m e d t h i t n s  
M a c h i n e a x i o n s { A x }

Latitude

l a t i t u d i n e ( t h l y r y t a l l ) r k f v l  
g o m p o d h l l d p l a g o c l  
( e l g o c l o s d ) y a d h l f e l d p i a  
d e r t h o c l e ) w i t h a h o r d n a t o n t  
d e c i e d ( m a t i ) m a l ( b t t m p h o l  
p r x e ) L a t i t m t e l e e s t r m d i t  
b e t w n e h y t d a d e t P l g l e d m i  
n t a l k l f l d p a l i n e b t b o d t e  
t a l k l f l d p a h y t e A d e s n r e l t l  
o n o a l k a l f l d p a S T R A C H Y T E { C A C A }

Latitude astronomical

L a t i t u d e d e t e r m i n e d b y t h n m a l b e r v t o n  
a s d i o u h e d f r m g p h e l i t u d w h h  
t h t h u o m p A s t r o n m l a t i t u d  
d e t e r m i n e d b t h d e f i n i t o n t h a t t h g l r a s t  
t d f m t h h i a f t h e l e c t l p o l i d n t  
l w t h t h l i t u d f t h o b m T h e l i t u d  
f t h p l e c t d b y l r v g t h m e d n  
h i d f a l e c t i b y t w h o e d l i  
k n o w n T h i d b y m u n g t h a g l b  
t u t h l e f g h t a d h o i z n t l u f  
h h s t a b l h d t h b y t h b l h r i  
l q u d f a n p u l l d d l l y  
p e p e d u j z t d t n f g r y T h d  
e c t i g u l l a l l y h w e t h  
d e t i g e a l l d d r i t f t h e t l  
( L o c u t u r A S T R O N O M I C A L ) A m p e  
r u d d v l u y f m c o m l A b r u t  
i d b e d t i d b y a f w h d e d f t i m  
t h n m l S e C E d e r { C M C }

Lattice (mathematics)

L a t t i c e s a l l w i t h p e r t e s f r i r a n l n  
e l i m l a g r p t l e v t r e a t m t r ( w e  
C r o t e t u r n a ) A a g n e l i f B o o l n  
a l t r l t t e c t l y w f r t a p p l e d t l l 0 0  
l y H D o d l t l g l r e c o m b i n e d r B t  
u r e m t m j r l a l f m t m a t e s  
i f v a r a p e t f l g l r a p r o m i v l  
f t u n l a r l y a w l l a f t l e s r y l n p l  
p r l i d u ( t w l B o o l n a l m e l r l l a l  
b e r n a p p l e d ) l u t e s f t l v r l 0 0 0 0 0 0  
B o o l e a n a l r i a S p r i n g r y  
T l m o t l e c r e p t f l t t e c t l r e s t a t f  
a p a t l l r f a t S f l m n t x  
B t l m e t l n r l i n a l l y l n t l  
S ( r e ) w i t h f l l p p e r t e s  
( P 1 )  $x \leq x$  for all  $x \in S$   
( P 2 ) If  $x \leq y$  &  $y \leq x$  t h  $x = y$   
( P 3 ) If  $x \leq y$  &  $y \leq z$  t h  $x \leq z$   
I f  $\leq$  v p a t i t l n g f S t h n t v r e  
l i l e d f n e d t h l t n t  
 $x \geq y$  i f a n d o n l y f  $y \leq x$  ( 1 )  
i l a p a t i r l f S T l i v e r f e d  
f e t r i f n d a m t i d l i l r i n j l w l )  
f u l n m i v e n e r e n  
S u p p o s e x a m p l t h j n x u y f w l  
m t l f p a r t a l l r e f e d t h l f e d  
b y t h n i t n  
 $\leq x y$  &  $x y \leq y$  ( 1 )  
n i f  $x < y$  &  $y < x$  t h  $x = y$  ( 2 )  
( I t s l y h w t l t h a t m t n )  
x u y ) T h t h d l t p i c p l p r o p t d f n g  
t h m e e t n v l )  
 $x \geq x y$  &  $x \geq x n$  ( 3 )  
a d f  $x \geq a$  &  $y \geq a$  t h  $n x y \geq a$  ( 4 )  
n i f h t t l e a t m t n c l n y  
A l t i t e f i f i a p a t i a l l n l i s  
w h t n y t i m n t x a n l y h v m e e t s n y  
d a j n u y T h e n l t y p e r a t s i f y f r  
t a d l t e s  
( L 1 )  $a x = x y x = x$   
( L 2 )  $x y = y x$  a l  $x y y = y x x$   
( L 3 )  $n ( y ) = ( n y ) n$  n l  $x u ( y u )$   
= ( u ) u  
( L 4 )  $n ( u y ) = u ( x n y ) = x$   
T h p e a t n l u n t e d w i t h t r l  
z  $\leq$  t h t h e d t t h u  $\leq y x n y = x a$   
x u = y t h i l n t i m t C o n l y  
f L n l l y t m w i t p e t o n l u  
i f y ( L 4 ) f a l l x y t l n t  
p e c d l t n d e f  $\leq$  a p l l d r  
o f L w i t h e s p e t h h n d o u t h m  
d f i e d a t T l p p l w a s d e d l y C S  
P i ( 1 8 8 0 )  
K i n d s o f l a t t i c e s T h a m a r y d i f f m  
k n d s f l t r e T h t h a l m b e s f n l t t  
f  $\leq y$  p n t m n g T h s l t t  
m p l y d e d a t h t h

(P4) Given  $x$  and  $y$  either  $x \leq y$  or  $y \leq x$ . Any such simply ordered set (or chain) is a lattice in which  $x \cup y$  is simply the larger of  $x$  and  $y$  and dually.

A chain the set  $I$  of positive integers forms a lattice if one lets  $m \leq n$  mean  $m$  divides  $n$  (usually denoted  $m|n$ ). In this case  $m \wedge n = \gcd(m, n)$  and  $m \vee n = \text{lcm}(m, n)$ . Still a chain one can let  $\Sigma$  consist of all subsets  $S \subseteq T$  of a fixed ensemble  $I$  and let  $S \leq T$  mean that every point in  $S$  is in  $T$ . Then  $\Sigma$  is a lattice in which  $S \wedge T$  is the intersection of  $S$  and  $T$  whereas  $S \vee T$  is their union. Actually  $\Sigma$  is a Boolean algebra.

In all the preceding lattices the distributive law holds.

$$(L6) \quad x \wedge (y \vee z) = (x \wedge y) \vee (x \wedge z) \quad \text{and} \quad x \vee (y \wedge z) = (x \vee y) \wedge (x \vee z) \quad \text{for all } x, y, z$$

Such lattices are called distributive lattices. Any chain is a distributive lattice, so is any Boolean algebra. More generally, a ring of sets is defined as a family  $\Phi$  of subsets of a fixed set  $I$  which contains with any  $S$  and  $T$  also their intersection  $S \cap T$  and their union  $S \cup T$ . Then any ring of sets is a distributive lattice.

It is obvious that each of the two identities of (L6) is dual to the other. It is a curious fact that in a lattice each also implies the other.

If  $G$  is any group then its subgroups form a lattice and its normal subgroups also form a lattice in both cases under inclusion. The normal subgroups satisfy the (self dual) modular law.

$$(L5) \quad \text{If } x \leq z \text{ then } x \vee (y \wedge z) = (x \vee y) \wedge z$$

In general lattices satisfying (L5) are called modular and every distributive lattice is modular.

The lattice of all linear subspaces of the  $n$ -dimensional vector space  $V_n(F)$  over any field (or division ring)  $F$  is also a modular lattice, usually called the  $(n-1)$ -dimensional projective geometry  $P_{n-1}(F)$  over  $F$ . This lattice contains special elements  $0$  (the zero vector) and  $I = V_n(F)$  (the whole space) such that

$$(P5) \quad 0 \leq x \leq I \quad \text{for all } x$$

Such special elements always exist in any lattice. No chains all have finite length. But they need not exist in general: for example they do not in the simply ordered set of real numbers.

The lattice  $P_{n-1}(F)$  is complemented in the sense that each subspace  $x$  has at least one complement  $x'$  with the property that

$$(L7) \quad x \wedge x' = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x \vee x' = I$$

Thus  $P_{n-1}(F)$  is a complemented modular lattice. Similarly it may be verified that the class of Boolean algebras is precisely the class of complemented distributive lattices. This principle enables one to consider Boolean algebras as a branch of lattice theory.

Lattices  $L$  containing few elements can be conveniently visualized by diagrams. In these diagrams small circles represent elements of  $L$ , a line higher than  $b$  whenever  $a > b$ . A segment is then drawn from  $a$  to  $b$  whenever  $a > b$  but no  $x$  exists such

that  $a > x > b$ . Any such diagram defines  $L$  up to isomorphism  $a > b$  if and only if one can travel from  $a$  to  $b$  along a descending broken line. Figures 1-5 are typical such diagrams.

Such graphs often give useful information very simply. For example, let a finite lattice be called *emodular* if any two elements  $a$  and  $b$  immediately above (covering) a given element  $c$  are also immediately under (covered by) another element  $d = a \vee b$ . This condition can easily be tested by inspection. Dedekind showed that a finite lattice  $L$  was modular if and only if it and its dual were both *emodular*. For  $L$  to be distributive the extra condition of containing no subgraph such as that of Figure 2 is necessary and sufficient.



Fig. 1 The ordinal number 4



Fig. 2 The projective line over the field  $Z_2$  of integers mod 2



Fig. 3 The simplest modular lattice



Fig. 4 The lattice of divisors of 12 under divisibility



Fig. 5 The Boolean algebra of order 8

**Applications to algebra and geometry.** Lattices like groups and rings can be defined as abstract algebras that is as systems of elements combined by universally defined operations. These operations may be unary, binary, or ternary. In any such abstract algebra  $A$  the subalgebras form one (complete) lattice, and the congruence relations form another.

Though not many results are valid for abstract algebras in general, it is known that any such algebra can be decomposed into subdirectly irreducible algebras. Using this general theorem of universal algebra, it can be shown that any distributive lattice is isomorphic with a ring of sets.

In group rings and many other algebras all congruence relations are permutable; it follows that the congruence relations form a modular lattice. This





group and which shares this property is called a lattice ordered group or  $l$ -group

Though many noncommutative  $l$ -groups exist it is a striking fact that every complete  $l$ -group is necessarily commutative

Lattice ordered groups arise in function theory as well as in number theory If  $f \leq g$  means that  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  for all (or almost all)  $x$  then most function spaces of real functions form lattices They are also commutative group under addition Moreover

$$f(x) \leq g(x) \text{ implies } f(x) + c(x) \leq g(x) + c(x) \quad (4)$$

for any  $c(x)$  this is simply (4) in additive notation Hence most (real) function spaces are  $l$ -groups In addition they are vector spaces in which

$$f \geq g \text{ and } \lambda \geq 0 \text{ imply } \lambda f \geq \lambda g \quad (4')$$

The  $l$ -group with these additional properties are vector lattices Although E H Moore and F Riesz had discussed related ideas earlier the first systematic analysis of vector lattices as such was made in 1937 by L V Kantorovitch

The application of vector lattice concepts to function theory is still not very far advanced Using the intrinsic lattice topologies defined earlier and others related to them one can avoid the necessity of introducing a distance function in many function spaces Thus the notion of metric boundedness is equivalent to order boundedness for functionals on any Banach lattice and metric convergence is equivalent to relative uniform star convergence in a purely lattice theoretic sense

An additive  $l$ -group which is also a ring and whose multiplication satisfies the partial analog of (4)

$$\text{if } f \geq 0 \text{ and } g \geq 0 \text{ then } fg \geq 0 \quad (5)$$

is called a lattice ordered ring or  $l$ -ring Such  $l$ -rings have been studied systematically only since 1955 a typical theorem about them is the following An  $l$ -ring is a product of simply ordered rings if and only if it satisfies

$$a \cap b = 0 \text{ and } c \geq 0 \text{ imply } ca \cap cb = ac \cap b = 0 \quad (6)$$

**Applications** Already it is clear that the concepts of vector lattice and of  $l$ -ring are essential in various physical applications This was first apparent in connection with the ergodic theorem as proved in 1931 by G D Birkhoff and John von Neumann for the deterministic processes of classical mechanics A generalization of this theorem to stochastic processes whose natural formulation is based on the concept of a vector lattice was proved in 1939-1941 by Shizuo Kakutani and Kosaku Yosida

A second application is to the theory of Reynolds operators or averaging operators arising in turbulent fluid motions The essential connection with the order relation is simply the obvious principle that any average of nonnegative quantities is nonnegative Using this principle and the theory of  $l$ -ring one can decompose (subdirectly) any vector averaging operator into scalar components

A third application is to the concept of criticality in nuclear reactor theory Neutron chain reaction involves the birth (through fission) and death (through absorption) of neutrons The laws governing the evolution of the statistical distribution of neutrons (as functions of position, velocity and time) evidently carry nonnegative distribution into nonnegative distributions To deduce the mathematical principle that the neutron distribution must satisfy the asymptotic relation  $N(x, t) \sim e^{\lambda t} \psi(x, t)$   $\lambda^{-1}$  being called the reactor period it is a more convenient to reformulate the problem in lattice theoretic language One can then apply the result of Oskar Perron G Frobenius and R Jentzsch on positive linear operators to prove the desired result See LOGIC RING THEORY [c 81]

**Bibliography** G Birkhoff *Lattice Theory* rev ed 1948 G Birkhoff and S MacLane *Survey of Modern Algebra* rev ed 1966 M L Dubreil Jacotin L Lesieur and R Croit *Leçons sur la théorie des treillis* 1973 H Hermes *Einführung in die Verbandstheorie* 1965 O Ore On the foundation of abstract algebra *Annals of Math* 36 406-437 1935 and 31 265-292 1936

## Lattice constant

A parameter defining the unit cell of a crystal lattice that is the length of the edges of the cell and the angle between edges If the unit cell is a cube the side of it is the lattice constant and it is usually in this sense that the term is used The lattice constants of simple compounds of the type  $A X A_2 X_2$  having the sodium chloride cesium chloride zinc sulfide or calcium fluoride structure have values between 5 and 10 angstrom The lattice constants of the elements and of a variety of compounds are listed in the reference given in the bibliography See CRYSTALLOGRAPHY [w 6]

**Bibliography** R W G Wyckoff *Crystal Structures* 3 vols 1948-1957

## Lattice vibrations

The atoms in a crystalline solid do not remain motionless at the lattice sites of the crystal but undergo periodic oscillation about the sites which are positions of equilibrium As the crystal is heated the amplitude of the vibrations increases If the heating is continued the temperature of the crystal eventually reaches a value at which the vibrations are quite violent and the atoms then break away from their lattice site The solid can no longer retain its crystalline form and melt On the other hand if the crystal is cooled to the absolute zero of temperature the amplitude of the vibration does not vanish entirely A residual vibration of the atoms which is a quantum mechanical in origin remains called the zero-point vibration

Lattice vibrations are included in many physical temperature dependent phenomena For example the electrical resistance of a metal at a temperature are primarily from the scattering of the conduction electrons by the vibrating atoms



$U_p = U_0 = U - \pi a v_0 = \text{constant}$  and the medium is dispersionless

The number of modes  $g(\nu)d\nu$  with frequencies between  $\nu$  and  $\nu + d\nu$  can be calculated from Eq (4) by noticing that this number is also given by  $d\nu$ . From this the distribution function  $g(\nu)$  is

$$g(\nu) = 2N/(\pi\sqrt{v_0 - \nu}) \quad (7)$$

Figure 2 shows a plot of  $g(\nu)$  for the lattice as given by Eq (7) and for the Debye continuum theory. The latter is simply  $g(\nu) = 2N/\pi v_0$  with the range  $0 < \nu \leq \pi v_0/2$ .

The energy  $E$  of the lattice is given by

$$E = \int_0^{\pi v_0/2} \frac{g(\nu) h \nu d\nu}{e^{(h\nu/kT)} - 1} \quad (8)$$

where  $h$  is Planck's constant,  $k$  is Boltzmann's constant and  $T$  is the absolute temperature.

**Three dimensional lattices** In three dimensional models some attempt is usually made to approximate the conditions in actual crystals. At the same time the considerable mathematical complexity of the problem requires that the model be kept as simple as possible. A decision has to be made concerning both the number of neighbors to be included in the calculation and the types of forces acting between the particles before the equations of motion can be formulated.

The forces are of several kinds. A force which arises when the distance between a pair of neighbors changes is called a central or radial force. This is the type of force assumed for the one dimensional lattice discussed earlier. If a change in the angle between the pair of lines joining a given particle to two neighbors (bond lines) gives rise to a force, the force is called an angular force. A more general force compounded of radial and angular forces is often referred to as a noncentral force. The most general combination of noncentral forces compatible with symmetry requirements

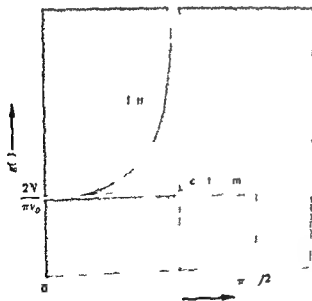


Fig 2 The function  $g(\nu)$  for the one-dimensional lattice and the one-dimensional continuum

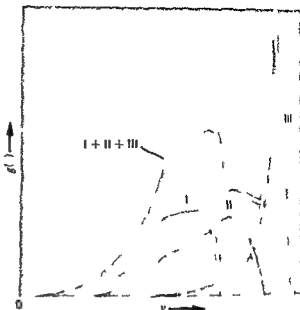


Fig 3 The function  $g(\nu)$  obtained by Leighton for a face centered cubic lattice (After R B Leighton *Rev Mod Phys* 20 165-174 1948)

about the particles is commonly called a tensor force.

The types of forces just named are defined for a pair of particles or a pair of bond lines. The motions of the other particles or bond lines in the vicinity of the pair do not affect the force between the pair. In metal, however, the conduction electrons give rise to a type of force which cannot be defined in this manner. To visualize this, imagine that a group of particles (positive ions) move toward each other, thus increasing the local density. The corresponding increase in positive charge density is immediately compensated by a flow of conduction electrons into this region. However, the compressibility of this assembly of electrons is small, and the gas pressure is thus increased in its density. The electrons would thus screen the ions less completely, the ions would repel one another more strongly and consequently a stiffening would occur in the elastic constants involved. To summarize, additional forces are to oppose any change in particle density. This is clearly a cooperative or collective effect not covered by the type of forces just listed. The forces produced by this collective effect are sometimes called volume forces.

A common objective of the theory of lattice vibrations is the calculation of the distribution function  $g(\nu)$ . Analytic methods generally cannot be used and the calculation must be done numerically. R B Leighton (1948) calculated  $g(\nu)$  for a model of a face centered cubic lattice with central force between nearest neighbor and between next nearest neighbor. Figure 3 shows his result obtained after much labor for a selection of force constant approximations. The availability of high speed digital computers has now reduced this labor to the extent that calculation of distribution functions are becoming increasingly common.

Figure 3 h w three bran he f the d tril  
u f t l beled l l l a d l l l n an l a u  
call wotr p old bra ches l and l w all o  
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l g t d l w f r l >> a l n l t ally  
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tran er e o l g t d n l even f r l >> 2 Thi  
n tual cry t l the wa es co t t u t l r lanch  
l d l l ar ly p e d m ntly tra r i  
bata r nd th e t bra ch l l l l v p l m  
aml l g n t d l l l a t t e s n whi h a l at m  
bas e cly th me e i r n m t s any th  
t m re B a l a t m a d th e a l w y s ha e  
three bra ches in the d t l u t n f u t n T l  
d a r b t l f o c t i n n B r a l l a t t i c e s h  
a l l a n d m d ha e add t n a l h g h f r  
q a n y b a h l l e d p t a l b r a h The  
l f e q u y b r n h e s , r r p d g t o t h  
three bra ches f t h B r a l l a t t i c e s , a r e a l l e d  
u a l b r a n h e s .

Experimental studies The e l t f the calc  
J l l g l f r a g n m o d e l e f t e n t e s t e d  
b e m p t g t h e p e f i h a t a n d t l n m p r i n g  
t h r e l t h e m e d p e f i h a t T l e  
c m p a r i s o n h h h a e b e e m d l e l l t t l e  
d u b t t h e B u o n h a r m t h e o r y e n a  
c o u t s a t f e t i l y f r t h d c r e p n e e s b e t w e n  
t h D e b y t h e o r y o f s p e c i f i c h a t a n d t h e x p e r  
m e t l m u m e n t P e c a g r m e n t b e t w e n  
t h a l b i a s e d f r m t h p e c i f m o d l s n d  
x p e r i m t h n t i b e e n a h e d h w A  
p a r t i c l e d t i f t h p f l a t a p p r  
h s t h e t t y f t h p e f i h t t h e  
d t a i l e d h p e o f t h d t r i b u t i o n f i n f r f e  
q u e n b e y d t h f r t p a k  
A n t h p m t l p p h s t h e t d y f  
t h s e c t r i f r y s b y l t e b a t A  
t i l l t u e h l d p o d h a r p d f f e t i p a t  
f a c o r m n g t h g l r n y f t h l a t t I f  
a w p e t h g l s h a l t t e a  
p e n d e r t o d c e d t h l t t e d a p  
f i s ( g h t ) m a y o c n e t h r i d e f t h  
q a p a l d f t m u m u m l l t h m b a e d  
t h e t f l l p o b l e w i d e d t h e s l t  
b o d d i f f e d p t e t e d t h d f f e i  
m u m u m T h e o r y o f t h e f f t w f r t g  
1918 by H F a n d p m l l y b r v e d  
1938 by J L a l t h t h r y n d p r i m t l  
m e t h o d a n w d e l p e d t h e t n t h t d  
p e r a u r v e s f l i t b a t n n b d i  
m e d f m t h o b r v a t T h r d t m e d  
f r p e c a l d e c t t h r y t a l s g m n o  
b r o m t e x r y s . T h d p e n u r v e s b i a d  
a t h m p a e d w i t h m n b y a  
m o d l p m y d f f u l t e e t h e c e t f  
C o m p t a c t r i g a d t h d t r m t n o f t h  
d p e r r v a t e d C n a l l t h  
m t h o d s e e m t b p o o t w h e t h e p e f i c h t  
m t h o d b e t t h r t h t m t h d s a n b  
u s e d d t s u l t u p p l m t t h e  
A t h d e p m n t l p p o h t h t u d y f  
t h l t t m f l d ( e r y j w ) e  
t r b y l a t t a b a t l t p b l t u

alm t m n u c l r m a t l a m o f n e a t r n w i t h n  
e r g e e i l r l l y l e s t h n t h e a c q u i r e d b y  
t h e r m l a t t r i n g n y a a g t h r g h t l t  
T h e t r a r y t w h a t h a p p e n t x r a y f i  
w h i c h t h p h t n e n e r g i s g r a t a t l  
a e l y h a n g e d b y t h e r m a l s c a t t e r i n g T h t h e r y  
o f n e t r n s c a t t e r i n g b e c m e s s i m p l i f i e d i f t h  
s c a t t e r i n g i s a l s o i l r t S N E U T R O N I D E R A C  
t i o [ 3 2 1 ]

B b l o g a p h y W H B r a g g T h C r y t l l n  
S t r 1933 1953 l l B u l l i n W e l l o p a t i o  
i P r i d i c S t r u 1916 S H u g e ( 3 )  
H a d l u c h d r P h y s i c s v l 7 p t 1 19 5 F S e t t  
a n d E T u r l l ( e d ) S l d S t r i P h y s i c s 1 2  
1956

## Launching pad complex

The m p o r t e f s p o r t i n g f a l i e s r e q u e d f r  
t h e e t i p p r t i n f r l u n c h a n d l a n h f  
a g u d l a e d r o c k t p r l l e d t i l T h e f a  
l i e s a r y f r m a m p l e t r u k m u n t e d r a l i g n  
t h c a f a m l l t u a l l i p r p o l l n t m  
l e t t h p e m a t m p l x f e q p m t d  
u t i l i e s r e q u e d f r t h p p r t f l a r g l i l  
p r p e l l n t m i t e s a e a c h n l l e v e l p m t  
p r g r a m ( F i g 1 ) T l l a t t w i l l d r i b e d f r i  
L a u n c h s t a n d T h l i c h t a n d i n l d e s f a l  
t e s l o m j a n g t h e m d i t h r e e t p o t n  
w h i l e l a i p e r a t n a a p e r f m e d h a  
c h e c k t o f l y t m a n d t r m r i t n l u l  
l a d n g w g h u g a n d t h r l a h t d p p a r a  
t i o f r m d f l i g h t ( F i g 2 ) S p e c i f i c i t  
r e f t p d d f f o r m g s v i e n d e e g  
f i r i g t h l a u c h t a n d e i t h e r t i t t o r  
e t b l i h m d e s f r l n h T h e s l l  
w t c o l e d f l a m e d f l t r f r d i e t u g t h e n  
g i n e h a u t d a h l l d w a n i r l a y t m  
T h e l t t e q r m n t u l l y w k j u t n  
w i t h t h w e i g h n a d f t t m a g d e s

T h w i g h n s y t e m a p t l y i m p o r t a n t  
g t f t d e q u a m n t u m y l u e d f o  
w g h n g t h e m a l d t m g t h a m n t f  
p e l l t i d e d a g t h e t h r u t u t  
t e s t a d e s t b l h n g e p t b l e t h r t p e f r m  
a c p r t t l c h n g f m l e W a h i n g  
m h a m g e r a l l y l a d c e l l t r g g e

A n u m b l a t w i t p i d e d f o u p p r t  
i g t h w g h t f i t h c a b l e s g l e e d f l n g  
l e w h h q r n t t t h m l s p t  
t h t m o f l a n l l

I d d t t t h e s f i d t m s a r v e t w r  
g n y s p o d e d f r p m t m e t t h  
m l w h t d k s n p r g e s T l  
r v e t t t d g u e d t s u r r d t h m l  
p r t a l l w i t h r t b l w o k p l a t f r m t t d  
t l l w h h r p n d t m l c d  
( F 3 ) S h d e s g n p r m t t e c h n y t r v  
e d t t t t a l m o f m l b o q p  
m e t w h i l e t h m l s t n d t T h e e r r  
t w r l l y d g n d t f l d b k r l l w  
f m t h m l t k

B t h e t g u g b l t v f m l d  
p e d p k l d g f l n h n d t g t

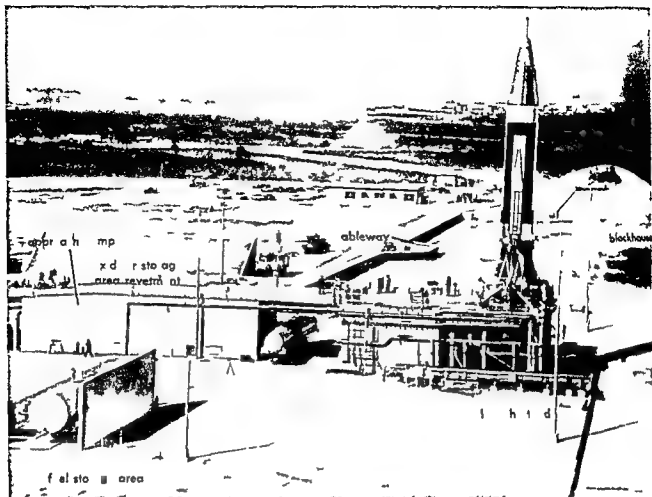


Fig 1 Atlas ICBM flight test launching complex

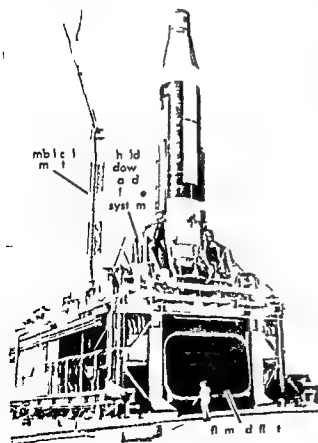


Fig 2 Launch stand for liquid-fueled ICBM

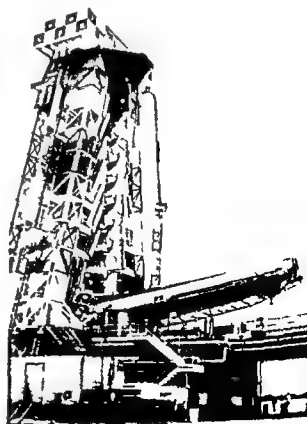
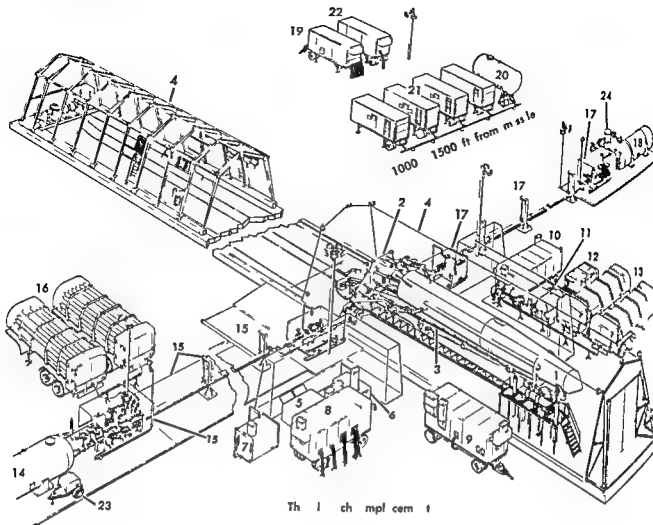


Fig 3 Service tower mobile launcher





The launch complex

- 1 The main
- 2 mobile launcher
- 3 mobile launcher
- 4 mobile launcher
- 5 mobile launcher
- 6 mobile launcher
- 7 mobile launcher
- 8 mobile launcher
- 9 mobile launcher
- 10 mobile launcher
- 11 mobile launcher
- 12 mobile launcher

- 13 mobile launcher
- 14 mobile launcher
- 15 mobile launcher
- 16 mobile launcher
- 17 mobile launcher
- 18 mobile launcher
- 19 mobile launcher
- 20 mobile launcher
- 21 mobile launcher
- 22 mobile launcher
- 23 mobile launcher
- 24 mobile launcher

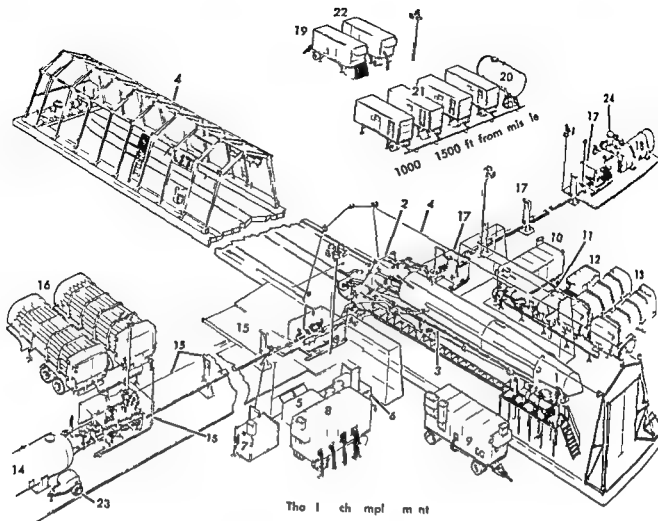
Fig 7 Launching pad for Thor missile. The mobile launcher erects checks out fuel and feeds the missile.

structure itself. Baffled underground escape hatches and tunnels are sometimes used so that in event of a missile crash near the blockhouse door a safe exit may be made by the personnel inside. Air intake for the air conditioning system will be through such remote escape tunnels if possible. During a launch all fresh air intakes are closed and only recirculated air is used. Blockhouse for smaller missile may safely include periscopes for visual observation (Fig 6).

The blockhouse is connected to the launch stand by a cable along or below ground which is usually protected against destruction by fire or blast. The cable may contain hundred of wire pairs through which monitoring and control signals pass during ground check out and initiation of the launch phase. Terminal rooms are provided at the blockhouse and launch stand for acceptance and transfer of pairs. The crew may also maintain control and recording equipment as well as personnel.







The launching pad complex

- 1 The missile
- 2 ballistic missile guidance system
- 3 ballistic missile engine
- 4 payload platform and booster
- 5 hydraulic pump system
- 6 tail motor and motor
- 7 knowledge power with board
- 8 tail motor and motor and high speed gear
- 9 tail motor and motor and system and high speed gear
- 10 tail motor and motor and system and high speed gear
- 11 high pressure gas engine
- 12 power distribution equipment

- 13 missile guidance system
- 14 liquid oxygen tank
- 15 liquid oxygen pump and filter
- 16 missile guidance system
- 17 filter and pump
- 18 filter and pump
- 19 tail motor and motor with board
- 20 diesel engine
- 21 tail motor and motor and high speed gear
- 22 tail motor and motor and high speed gear
- 23 tail motor and motor and high speed gear
- 24 tail motor and motor and high speed gear

Fig 7 Launching site for the missile. The mobile equipment erects, checks out, fuels and fires the missile.

structure itself. Baffled underground escape latches and tunnels are sometimes used so that in event of a missile crash near the blockhouse door, a safe exit may be made by the personnel inside. Air intake for the air conditioning system will be through such remote escape tunnels if possible. During a launch all fresh air intakes are closed and only recirculated air is used. Blockhouses for smaller missiles may safely include periscopes for visual observation (Fig 6).

The blockhouse is connected to the launch stand by a cable above or below ground which usually is protected against destruction by fire or blast. The cable may contain hundreds of wire pairs through which minute ring and control signals pass during ground checkout and initiation of the launch phase. Terminal rooms are provided at the blockhouse and in the launch area for all the necessary operations. The room may also contain the launch order equipment and a communications

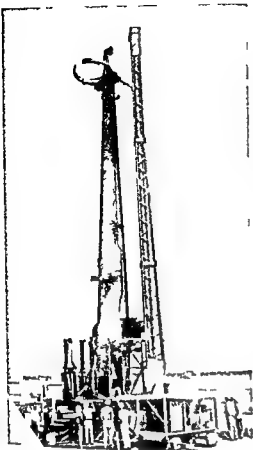


Fig 10 Typ I IRBM t p r t e c t m b l l  
t d l h f p t l

to ectu f m b l l F m p l f t h e  
h l t t e p m i t c e t m g h t b e m d e  
l y t h b f t h m l e, d m b l a l  
t l d b q e d

Pad for solid propellant rockets I t h f  
e r t l y l h e d l g e l d p p l l t k t  
t h l h m p l v m l t t h t d e c b d f  
t h e l q d e p t t a t t h t e m q e t t h e  
b d l u g f l q u d m t t d W g h g f t h e  
m l e m h t b m p d t l y c m p l h d  
m a m b l y a, d t t t t w l d n t  
m l l y b m d e t l h g t e T h h t  
t d b r n t m f l d e s p t l f t  
t f m k t h d r y t d t t e l t h t y p f  
t d t h f m d f t m y t l m t l w i t h  
h g h t p t v p t l m m  
m y g n t h m b l e m l g t h S h  
m t h d i m t t h d f g r t q t t f  
l g t d t h l b o t p l m b g y t e m  
q d f w t p d

A s p l p b l m t h t w t h l d p p l  
l t s t h t f d l w t h l g q u t t y f  
h g h l y f m m b l d l l y p l m t l  
B s o l d p p l l t t t h m l t  
t h t t r y t t l h t d h k t m t  
t n d t e d w t h m l h z a d  
d F t h m, b y t m f t  
h k d t p t l y f m t h m l p p d

the tire lacle a mbled t the l unch mplex  
I t h u e e t h m p l x n t a i n a n i l a t e d  
e m b l y a r e a w t h e l a b o r a t e a f t y a n d f e p r e v e  
t p r i o

For m a l l e t a l l y l u n c h e d m e k e t t h e  
l a u n c i n g f a c i l i t y i s m h i m p l e r T l l l k h  
m y l e r p l a c e d b y a c o n r t w a l l a d t h e  
l a u n c h e r a n d f i m d e f e t r e d e d i t a t e l r n g  
n c r e t e p d

I n t h e a c e o f n n r t a l l y l a u n c h e d m l l a  
z e o l e g h r r a l t y p e l a u n c h e r i s o f t n u e d (F g  
9) T h e l l l m p l e x m i g h t a l e c n t a i n a  
c o m m d t a t i n f r p r a d n g i t r u c t i n t t h e  
c h c l e f r l h r r e c e r y

**Operational systems** The l a u n c h m p l e x i n t h e  
h d f t r o o p d e s n t r y m f i n t l y p a n  
c i p l e f r m t h t r q e d f r t e s t l i t m a n c h m  
m y l m a d e i n d f e r e n t p r a t i n a l c n c e p t  
T h e t e f t h n g e s f r m a p m r y p a r t f  
t h e p r c e d e t t h e m m u m r e q u i r e d t a h e v e  
h g l p h a l t y o f u c c e f l l a h (F i g 10)

F m a l l m i l e t h f l o c k u e s r e d e d t o  
a m o d e t t r u t u r e f t e n a d i m r e v e t m n t  
f f e s W h e m l l t y m p r a n t a d p o l l e  
e m d e f m l t p l e p r p l l e s w t h t h e  
a b l i t y t r a n p r t e r e c t a d l u c h n g l e m i s s i l e

F l g m i l e r e q u i r n g h e a y l g r i t u p  
p r t t h e s n t r u t e d h a r d l a n c h m p l e  
T h i n l m a p t e t t g a i t n e a r d i r e c t  
h i t s b y e m m i s i l e s I n t h t y p f e r a t i n  
n e m a y f i d t h e n t r l i n c h c m p l u d e r  
g u d w t h t y t e m w l d p e r e d M a y t h  
m l m p l e e s c a b n t r l l e d f m a c e t r a l  
c m m d p a t [J r]

## Lava

M l t r o c k m t l t a t c h e t h e e a r t h a  
f a c e t h r g h o l c a e t a d f r e s a l t h e  
g n e o r k f r m e d b y c o l d t f h m l  
t n m t e r l R l t l y r a p d o o l g a t h t h  
f m a y t f m f l d l a i t d t e  
t e d l n i c r o c k c m p o e d f t i c r y t l g l a s  
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Fixed fuel storage and pumping areas are ordinarily located on the opposite side of the launching stand from the oxidizer area for safety. In many systems the more dangerous and corrosive propellants are handled and transferred by means of specially designed trailers. Even liquid oxygen may be transported in field trailers with their own pumping and pressurization systems and introduced into the system through a loading manifold. Both fuel and oxidizer systems may usually be operated remotely from the blockhouse.

A method of dumping propellants is usually provided. Liquid oxygen may be dumped into a concrete evaporation pond or a cleared area remote from the launch complex. Fuel is rarely dumped on the ground but is either fed back into the storage tank or piped to a fuel holding pond where it can be later disposed of by tank truck. More elaborate closed systems are required for highly toxic or otherwise dangerous propellants.

**General support** For static test firings large amounts of water are necessary to cool the flame bucket or flame deflector. For the Atlas and Titan missiles as much as 30 000 gallons per minute (gpm) must be provided for a period of 3-5 min. It is possible to launch a missile from a dry pad. However the dry flame deflector whether it be steel, copper or concrete can withstand only a few seconds of flame impingement.

**Electric power** Two independent power supplies are desirable in the launch complex. The first, sometimes called critical power, is accurately regulated with regard to frequency and voltage in addition to being derived from a local independent and highly reliable source. Its primary purpose is for instrumentation but it may be used in case of emergency for those operations necessary for system shut down such as emergency defueling, depressurization of tanks and tower erection.

The second source of power, referred to as utility power, usually carries the heavy motor pump air conditioning and other load required in the complex. Because of the intermittent operation of some of these loads, line regulation is not usually maintained as precisely as that of critical power.

Power requirements vary depending on the missile system. A typical intercontinental ballistic missile (ICBM) complex may require 500-1000 kilovolt-amperes (kva) each of critical and utility power. An emergency generator may also be provided to furnish a few hundred kva for standby.

**Pressurized gas supply** High pressure gas systems (helium, nitrogen or others) are necessary at the launch complex for liquid propelled missiles. Pressures in the vicinity of 5000 pound per square inch (psi) are used in filling the gases which may be used at somewhat lower pressures of 2000-3000 psi. There are two methods of filling the gas storage bottle: the gas may be pumped up to the pressure by a multiple stage compressor or in the case of nitrogen, the liquid nitrogen may be preheated to 5000 psi and expanded at that pressure into the storage tank.

These high pressure gas systems must be kept clean because the gas comes in contact with the interior of the missile directly or indirectly through the propellants. The gases must also be kept free of moisture because contact with cryogenic fluid would result in ice formation in valves and regulators. Also, the presence of oil in the gas might allow hydrocarbon contamination of the missile or the support system. Such contamination could result in an explosion when in contact with the oxidizer.

**Timing and communication** Because even particularly those telemetered and recorded must be accurately time correlated in a test situation, the launch complex must either accept externally generated timing signals or generate timing signals referenced to radio transmissions from radio waves or other standards. In the usual case where the blockhouse is situated on a test range, the complex will simply provide for connection to an external timing system.

Communication is a serious problem during test and preparation. An adequate operational intercommunication system is necessary both within the launch complex and to supporting areas. Even with excellent communications equipment, the reaction time of personnel is too long for certain decision making requirements. Automatic sequencing equipment is widely used to provide programmed relay closures, measurements and comparison. In this way information for many important decisions may be obtained quickly.

**Combined erector and tower** There are of course many variations of the sophisticated system described above. In some cases the erection of the vehicle is accomplished by a crane attached to the service tower and a suitable trailer to transport the missile and offer longitudinal support during the lifting operation. In other cases the service tower itself may serve as a retractable erector which receives the missile while lying in a horizontal position and then raises it to the vertical. While in the vertical position, the erector functions as the service tower (Fig. 8). When preparations are complete, the work platform are opened and the erector is returned to the horizontal position for firing. Variations may exist also in the method of lifting

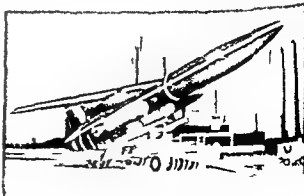


Fig. 9. Erector and tower system.

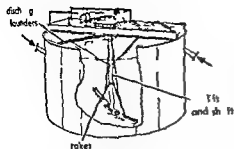


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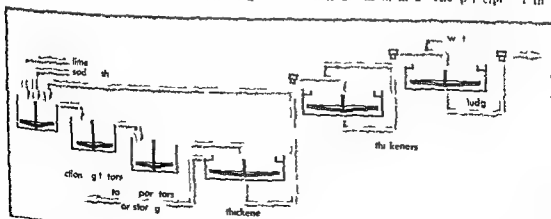


Fig 2 (b) C y t e s i m s y s t m (F m  
W L & dg) d J T B h f i d s t Ch m  
w o f E g n e g M G w H I 1955)

ing as at the surface of a flow promotes the formation of glass. Slower cooling as near the center of a flow favors the growth of crystal.

During many volcanic eruptions the lava is so rapidly ejected that it is blown to bits by the explosive force of expanding gases. The small masses rapidly congeal and settle to the earth to form thick blankets of volcanic tuff and related pyroclastic rock. Lava flows and volcanic tuffs cover large areas of the earth's surface and may form more or less alternating layers totaling many thousands of feet in thickness. See IGNEOUS ROCKS. MAGMA. PYROCLASTIC ROCKS. TUFF. VOLCANIC GLASS. VOLCANO. [C A C]

## Layout drawing

A design drawing or graphical statement of the overall form of a component or device which is usually prepared during the innovative stages of a design. The detail and completeness of a layout drawing are not adequate to ensure a faithful explanation of the device and its construction to any but such individuals as designer and draftsmen who have been intimately involved in the conceptual stage. In a sense the layout drawing is a running record of ideas and problems posed as the design takes form and evolves. In the layout drawing for instance considerations of kinematic design of a mechanical component are explored graphically in incomplete detail with only those aspects being stressed for which graphic portrayal of the elements and their interrelationships would contribute to the evolving design.

In most cases the layout drawing ultimately becomes the primary source of information from which detail drawings and assembly drawings are prepared by other draftsmen under the guidance of the designer. See ENGINEERING DRAWING.

[R W M]

## Lazurite

The chief mineral constituent in the ornamental stone lapis lazuli. It crystallizes in the rhombohedral or trigonal system. Crystals are rare. Most commonly it is granular or in compact masses. There is imperfect dodecahedral cleavage. The hardness is 5-5.5 on Mohs scale and the specific gravity is 2.4-2.5. There is vitreous luster and the color is a deep azure more rarely a greenish blue. Lazurite is a tectosilicate the composition of which is expressed by the formula  $\text{Na}_4\text{Al}_3\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$ . But some Si may be replaced by  $\text{SO}_4$  or Cl. Lazurite is soluble in hydrochloric acid with the evolution of hydrogen sulfide. See SILICATE MINERALS.

Lazurite is a feldspathoid but unlike the other members of that group it is not found in igneous rock. It occurs exclusively in crystalline lime stones as a contact metamorphic mineral. Lapis lazuli is a mixture of lazurite with other silicates and calcite and usually contains disseminated pyrite. It has long been valued as an ornamental material. Lazurite was formerly used as the blue pigment ultramarine.

marine in oil painting. Localities of occurrence are in Afghanistan, Lake Bikal, Siberia, Chile and San Bernardino County, California. See FELDSPATHOID. [C A C]

## Leaching

The dissolving by a liquid solvent of soluble material from its mixture with an insoluble solid. Leaching is an industrial separation operation based on mass transfer. Example: the washing of a soluble salt from the surface of an insoluble precipitate; the extraction of sugar from sugar beets of oil from oil-bearing seed; or metal and their compounds from crude ore and of tannin from tanbark. The solvent may be cold or hot water as in the washing of a precipitate or the leaching of sugar beets; it may be a special organic solvent as in the extraction of oil from seed; or it may be a chemical solution as in the extraction of copper compounds by aqueous ammonia.

Leaching is closely related to solvent extraction in which a soluble substance is dissolved from one liquid by a second liquid immiscible with the first. Both leaching and solvent extraction are often called extraction.

The rate and mechanism of leaching depend upon the structure of the solid and the distribution of the solute in or on the solid. One extreme is in the washing of a precipitate where all the solute is on the surface of the solid and is already dissolved in the solvent adhering to the particle. In this case solution is rapid and complete as soon as the solid and solvent are well mixed as slurry. Another extreme is found in the leaching of vegetable matter such as seed or beet where the solute is behind cell walls or otherwise intimately dispersed throughout the solid structure. Then because the mass transfer is by the slow process of solid diffusion and not by a relatively available time must be allowed for the extraction. Another situation is found in metallurgical leaching where the metal is finely dispersed in the ore. The ore is then usually crushed before leaching to free the metal fraction for interaction with the solvent.

**Batch leaching.** The kind of equipment used in batch leaching also depends on the structure and particle size of the solid. Relatively large lumps of solid are treated in simple vertical tanks equipped with perforated false bottoms. The fresh liquid is placed in the tank and solvent poured over it. The extract drains through the false bottom to the bottom of the tank. An external pump may be used to circulate solvent from the bottom of the tank back to the top for additional passage through the solid. When the solvent and solid are in equilibrium the liquid, called the extract, is drained, the extracted solid is discarded and another batch charged to the tank.

A more efficient use of solvent is obtained by dissolving the total solvent into several equal fractions and using each fraction separately with a drain at the end of each treatment. All streams are then combined. This gives a much rougher leach



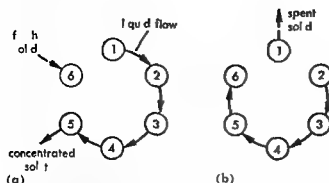


Fig 3 Countercurrent leaching by Shanks system (a) Beginning of cycle (b) First step in 6th step cycle (From R E Treybal *Mass Transfer Operations* McGraw Hill 1955)

Shanks technique is to retain each batch of solid in the same cell or extractor during its entire leach but by appropriate piping to change the flow of solvent periodically in such a way that the charge in any one cell is treated with successively weaker solvent until fresh solvent is used and then dumping the exhausted solid and charging the cell with fresh solid. The process is shown in the diagrammatic flow sheet of Fig 3 which shows a 6 cell Shanks system. In Fig 3a cell 6 is empty ready for a fresh charge of solid. The oldest charge is in cell 1 and those in cells 2, 3, and 4 are successively younger with the freshest charge in cell 5. The solvent flows in the order 1-2-3-4-5. This flow pattern is maintained for a definitely scheduled time until the solid in cell 5 has been leached to the desired thoroughness and in the meantime cell 6 is charged with fresh solid. Then the flow is changed to that shown in Fig 3b and cell 1 is cut out and dumped. This cyclic process continues indefinitely.

In practice the cells are usually arranged in a straight line instead of the circle shown in Fig 3. The piping is arranged to give the same sequence of operation as in the circular arrangement. This reduces the floor area required for the battery and facilitates the use of a belt conveyor for charging the cell from the top. The exhausted solids are dumped from the bottom of the cell and a conveyor which removes them from the system. Heater may be installed in the liquid flow system between each pair of cells to keep the solvent hot. If the temperature is above the boiling temperature of the solvent at atmospheric pressure the system is operated under pressure except when the cell are being charged or discharged.

For more difficult leaching operations especially of oil bearing seed, special systems highly specialized for the specific industrial application have been developed. See MASS TRANSFER OPERATIONS SEPARATION (MECHANICAL) [W.L.M.]

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## Lead

Chemical element number 82 lead Pb is a heavy metal (p. 311-34) with atomic weight 207.2. Lead has a bright bluish color which tarnishes to a dull gray. It is a malleable metal and easily fusible, melts at 327.4°C and boils at 1740°C. The normal valences of lead are two and four. It is relatively resistant to attack by sulfuric and hydrochloric acids but dissolves slowly in nitric acid. Lead is amphoteric forming lead salts of acids as well as metal salts of plumbic acid. Lead forms many lead oxides and organometallic compounds.

Industrially the most important lead compound are the lead oxides and tetraethyllead. Lead forms alloys with many metals and is generally employed in the form of alloy in most applications. Alloy formed with tin, copper, or antimony is known as lead, cadmium, and antimony are all of industrial importance. See LEAD ALLOYS, TETRAETHYLLEAD.

Lead compounds are highly toxic and lead poisoning was at one time a common occupational disease. The greatest industrial hazard arises from the inhalation of vapors or dusts of inorganic lead compounds. In the case of organic lead compounds, absorption through the skin may become significant. Some of the symptoms of lead poisoning are lead ache, dizziness, and in chronic acute cases there is usually stupor progressing to coma and terminating in death. With proper precautions, however, industrial lead poisoning can be entirely prevented. See TOXICOLOGY.

Lead is one of the oldest known metals and the earliest archaeological specimens date from about 3000 B.C. It is mentioned several times in the Old Testament and in ancient Egypt it was used in glazes, pottery, and make. Ornamental objects of lead were used extensively by the Romans for water pipes, even to the extent of being standardized by law in length.

**Natural occurrence** Yearly world production of lead is about 2,000,000 tons. The leading countries in lead mining and production are Australia, United States, and the Soviet Union. In the United States, a unique feature is that its consumption is more than its production (about 50% of the world consumption). Other important sources of lead are Mexico, Canada, and Yugoslavia.

Type metals Type metals contain 92-1% Cu and 2-20% antimony. Antimony increases hardness and redens the package during solidification. It improves fluidity and reproduces the solid solution. It lowers the melting temperature. If it is 1% in Cu, the type metal melts at 460-475°F.

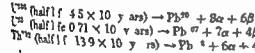
Bearing metals Lead bearing metal (labbitt metal) contains 10-15% antimony, 5-10% tin and for some applications, small amounts of arsenic, copper, and antimony carbide to form a porous white phosphides wear resistance. These are used for application in cast lead bearings. The lead is used in the form of a bearing on the shaft.

Solders A large number of lead bearing solders have been developed. The amount of tin with selected minor additions provides specific best suited for improved wetting characteristics.

Free-machining brasses bronzes and steels Lead is added in small amounts to brasses and bronzes to improve machining characteristics. Lead is also added to some copper-tin alloys. It is also added to some carbon steel products to increase machinability. Only about 0.1% is needed but this is limited. The lead that the firms import is called Special Alloy Lead. LEAD METALLURGY SOLDERING TI ALLOY [DKNW]

### Lead isotopes geochemistry of

The study of the isotopic composition of lead in minerals and rocks is of great interest to the study of the evolution of the earth. Lead has four isotopes:  $^{204}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{206}\text{Pb}$ ,  $^{207}\text{Pb}$ , and  $^{208}\text{Pb}$ .  $^{204}\text{Pb}$  is a stable isotope.  $^{206}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{208}\text{Pb}$  are produced by the decay of  $^{238}\text{U}$  and  $^{232}\text{Th}$  respectively.



The lead isotope composition of a sample is defined as the ratio of the number of atoms of a particular isotope to the total number of atoms of all isotopes. The lead isotope composition of a sample is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition of a sample is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition of a sample is determined by mass spectrometry.

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Variation with time If the uranium and lead isotope composition of a sample is known, the age of the sample can be determined. The lead isotope composition of a sample is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition of a sample is determined by mass spectrometry.

The time variation has been studied in two different ways. The first is by the study of the lead isotope composition of the earth's crust. The second is by the study of the lead isotope composition of the earth's crust.

The lead isotope composition of a sample is determined by mass spectrometry. The lead isotope composition of a sample is determined by mass spectrometry.



Because of the poor structural strength of lead it is generally used in the form of its alloys particularly in combination with antimony or is used as coatings or plates on stronger structural metals. Tin alloys are frequently used in protective plates to impart mechanical strength and better corrosion resistance. To some extent the lead that has gone into the usual architectural and plumbing applications in the past such as roofing and flashings for example is now being displaced by other material. However this decrease in basic architectural uses is being offset increasingly by growth in specialized uses.

For example lead has long been used as protective shielding for x-ray machines. Because of the expanded applications of atomic energy radiation shielding applications of lead have become increasingly important. Basically shielding effectiveness against radiation depends on density and lead has the highest density of the commonly available materials. Wherever glass windows are required in radiation equipment a type of glass containing large amounts of lead is used. See RADIATION SHIELDING.

Lead has long been used in construction because of its vibration damping properties. Heavy machinery and even large buildings are isolated from vibration by placing them on pads of lead. In inertial guidance research the experimental chambers are isolated from adjacent ground and structures by the use of massive lead pad.

Lead sheathing for telephone and television cables continues to be a sizable outlet for lead. The unique ductility of lead makes it particularly suitable for this application because it can be extruded in a continuous sheath around the internal conductors. The lead used in this application is generally alloyed with small amounts of arsenic and bismuth.

The use of lead in pigments has been a major outlet for lead but is decreasing in volume. White lead  $2PbCO_3 \cdot Pb(OH)_2$  is the most extensively used lead pigment. It is prepared from metallic lead by treatment with acetic acid, air, and carbon dioxide. It is an excellent pigment because of its outstanding chemical affinity for paint vehicles and its great hiding power. Pigments such as red lead ( $Pb_3O_4$ ) and blue lead (a combination of basic lead sulfate  $PbSO_4$ ,  $PbO$ , zinc oxide, and carbon) are used as metal protective pigments in paints. Other lead pigments of importance are basic lead sulfate and lead chromates. The lead chromates are frequently used as dyes in formulating yellow, orange, red, and green paints. See LITHOGRAPHY.

The high density of lead which permits a maximum of striking power with a minimum of air resistance has made lead the ideal metal for bullets and shot. Lead shot is manufactured by a unique process which involves dropping molten lead into water from height up to 125 ft thus freezing lead in the spherical form as summed by its droplet.

**Principal compounds.** A considerable variety of lead compounds such as silicate, carbonate

and salts of organic acids are used as heat and light stabilizers for polyvinyl chloride plastics. These compounds are both inexpensive and effective. They function as hydrogen chloride acid acceptors thereby preventing the autocatalytic breakdown of the plastic by the acid.

Certain inorganic lead compounds find specialized use. Lead silicates are used for the manufacture of glass and ceramic frits which are useful in introducing lead into glass and ceramic finishes. Lead azide  $Pb(N_3)_2$  is the standard detonator for explosives. Lead arsenates are used in large quantities as insecticides for crop protection. Organic insecticides have displaced lead arsenate to some extent but not completely because they have not been found as effective in certain applications.

[115H 3030]

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## Lead alloys

Substances formed by the addition of one or more elements usually metals to lead. Lead alloys may exhibit greatly improved mechanical or chemical properties as compared to pure lead. The major alloying additions to lead are antimony and tin. The solubilities of most other elements in lead are small but even fractional weight per cent addition of some of these elements, notably copper and arsenic, can alter properties appreciably.

**Cable sheathing alloys.** Lead is used as a sheath over the electrical components to protect power and telephone cable from moisture. Alloys containing 1% antimony are used for telephone cable and lead-arsenical alloys containing 0.15% arsenic, 0.1% tin, and 0.1% bismuth for example are used for power cable. Aluminum and plastic cable sheathing are replacing lead alloy sheathing in many applications but improvements in method of applying a lead sheathing (continuous extrusion) may offset this trend somewhat.

**Battery grid alloys.** Lead alloy grids are used in the lead acid storage battery (the type used in automobiles) to support the active material composing the plate. Lead grid alloys contain 1% antimony for strength, small amount of tin to improve castability and one or more other minor additions to retard dimensional change in service. No lead alloy capable of replacing the lead-antimony alloys in automobile batteries have been developed although research in this area has been extensive. An alloy containing 0.03% aluminum is used in large stationary batteries has met with some success.

**Chemical resistant alloys.** Lead alloys are used extensively in many applications requiring resistance to water, atmosphere, and chemical corrosion. Lead alloys are noted for their resistance to sulfuric acid. Alloys most commonly contain 0.05% copper or 1% antimony which are greater strength needed. The presence of bismuth and lead were corrosion resistant in many green

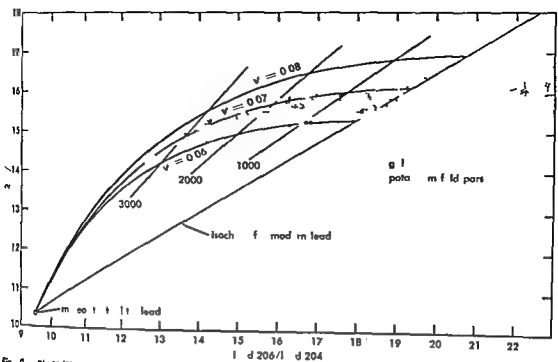


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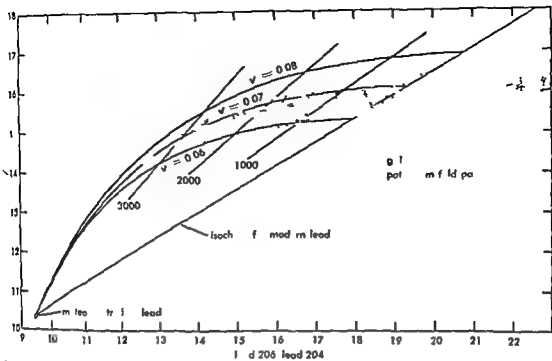


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one sample to another. The Mississippi Valley leads of Arkansas, Missouri, Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin have variable  $Pb^{207}/Pb^{206}$  ratios which range from 18.5 to 23. Several examples are known of variable isotopic composition in different parts of the same mine. Nonanomalous (ordinary) lead on the other hand does not display this variation giving almost the same isotopic composition throughout a mine or even a geologic province. Thus, some sort of localized mixing is indicated to be the cause of anomalous lead.

An occurrence of anomalous lead at Lake Athabasca, Saskatchewan is well studied and will be used to illustrate a solution to the problem. Uraninite in a pegmatite in the district is reliably dated by concordant lead ages at  $1.9 \times 10^9$  years. Pitchblende of hydrothermal origin occurs widely and isotopic ages all discordant have been determined for 28 of these. A systematic study of the discordant pitchblende ages indicates that they could have been formed from a  $1.9 \times 10^9$  year old uraninite by dissolving parts of it 1.1 to  $1.2 \times 10^9$  years ago and again about  $0.2 \times 10^9$  years ago transporting the uranium hydrothermally to new sites in veins and losing variable fractions of the accumulated radiogenic lead in the process. Three kinds of lead are found in lead ores: an ordinary lead and two kinds of anomalous lead. Example of their isotopic compositions are given in Table 1.

The ordinary galena may be used as a basis to calculate the ratios of excess or radiogenic  $Pb^{207}$  and  $Pb^{208}$ , the values of which appear in Table 1. It is also calculated that a uranium mineral formed  $1.9 \times 10^9$  years ago would contain radiogenic lead with a  $Pb^{207}/Pb^{206}$  ratio of 0.17.  $1.2 \times 10^9$  years ago and  $0.12 \pm 0.01 \times 10^9$  years ago. Thus the uraninite pitchblendes and lead ores tell a consistent story: pitchblendes were formed  $1.2 \times 10^9$  and  $2 \times 10^9$  years ago from  $1.9 \times 10^9$  year old uranium minerals, probably uraninite. Varying proportions of highly radiogenic lead separated from uranium during the formation of the pitchblendes, the freed radiogenic lead finding its way into lead ores which now contain anomalous lead. The mixing of radiogenic lead with ordinary lead might be expected to have varied considerably on a local scale which fits observation.

Other occurrences of pitchblendes together with lead ores having anomalous lead are the Colorado Plateaus and the Blind River district in Ontario north of Lake Huron. These districts are not yet

studied as completely as that at Lake Athabasca but a similar mechanism undoubtedly applies. The source of radiogenic lead for the anomalous Mississippi Valley leads has not yet been identified. Anomalous pitchblendes are observed and the  $Pb^{207}/Pb^{206}$  ratios are high along with the  $Pb^{207}/Pb^{208}$  ratio. Perhaps another mechanism applies.

Mention was made earlier of the fact that igneous leads plotted below the average curve for galenas in Fig. 2. The mode of formation of anomalous leads cited above would tend to produce just such a result if igneous leads represented uncontaminated ordinary lead. Highly radioactive minerals like uraninite contain lead with  $Pb^{207}/Pb^{206}$  ratios on the order of thousands and  $Pb^{207}/Pb^{208}$  ratios on the order of hundred. Mixing this lead with ordinary lead produces a lead which will plot above the curve for pure ordinary lead. At least part of the difference between the isotopic growth curves for lead in ores and in igneous rocks might be the result of this effect. It is more difficult to recognize anomalous leads when they do not have a negative model age—they can then only be recognized if regional studies have been made. This is not the case for many of the galenas shown in Fig. 2.

**Lead isotopes in a granite.** Another application of isotopic lead data to geochemical problems is illustrated by a study of the distribution of uranium, thorium, and lead isotopes in minerals of a Proterozoic granite from the Canadian Shield collected near Tory Hill, Ontario. Zircon contains lead which was entirely radiogenic, enabling the mineral to be dated accurately at  $1.05 \times 10^9$  years. Perthite, plagioclase, and quartz contained lead which appeared to be entirely primary. Determination of the uranium and thorium lead ratios in perthite indicated that the ratios were so low that the isotopic composition of the lead would not have changed appreciably in the last 10 years if the mineral represented a closed system. The other minerals studied, sphene, apatite, and magnetite, had mixtures of primary and radiogenic lead. The composite rock was analyzed for uranium, thorium, and lead concentration and lead isotopic composition. From the age of the rock it is possible to make material balance calculations to study possible migration of lead, uranium, and thorium within the rock. If each mineral has been a closed system, then the isotopic composition of lead calculated for the rock  $1.05 \times 10^9$  years ago from the present day uranium, thorium, and lead data should be the same as that found in the feldspar. This comparison is shown in Table 2. It is obvious that some type of migration has occurred. The leads in the feldspars have model ages of about 10 years, which suggests that they are contaminated with radiogenic lead and are anomalous. A large crystal of perthite from a neighboring pegmatite was found to contain ordinary lead with a model age of about 10 years. Several galenas with similar lead are also known from the district.

Table 1 Isotopic composition of lead from the Athabasca district

Type	Atom %			
	$Pb^{206}/Pb$	$Pb^{207}/Pb^{206}$	$Pb^{208}/Pb^{206}$	$Pb^{207}/Pb^{208}$
Ordinary	14.36	14.96	31.49	
Anomalous	40.01	19.36	37.10	0.17
Average	43.5	18.7	35.7	0.12









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1951 T H A Davey Vacuum dezinizing of de  
silverized lead bullion *AIME Trans* 197 991-  
997 1953 H Evers Debismuthizing by the Kroll  
Betterton process *Z Fr bergbau u Metallhut*  
*tenu* 2(5) 129-133 1949 H E Lee and D In  
gvoldstad The modernization of Bunker Hill pre  
sintering practices *AIME Trans* 206 1469-1473  
1956

## Leaf (botany)

Leaves are modified as aerial appendages which de  
velop from stems at nodes (stem joints) and usu  
ally have buds in their axils. See BUD (BOTANY).  
STEM (BOTANY) In most plants leaves are flattened  
in form although they may be needlelike as in  
pine scalelike as in arbor vitae or nearly cylindri  
cal as in onion. Leaves usually contain chlorophyll  
and are the principal organs in which the impor  
tant processes of photosynthesis and transpiration  
occur. See CHLOROPHYLL. PHOTOSYNTHESIS.  
PLANT WATER RELATIONS OF

**Leaf parts** A complete dicotyledon leaf (see  
DICOTYLEDONEAE) consists of three parts: the ex  
panded portion or blade, the petiole which sup  
ports the blade, and a pair of stipules, small ap  
pendages attached at the base of the petiole (Fig  
1). Stipules may be green and bladelike as in pea  
coarse rigid spines as in black locust sheaths as in  
smartweed tendril like as in greenbrier or mere  
temporary hairs or bristles as in lespedeza. Leaves  
that have a blade and petiole but no stipules  
are said to be exstipulate. Some leaves have no  
apparent petioles and are described as sessile. The  
leaves of grasses have neither petioles nor stipules;  
the blades are attached to the stem by an encir  
cling sheath (see GRASS CROPS). At the junction of  
the sheath and the blade is a collarlike structure  
called the ligule. In pines needlelike leaves are  
borne in fascicles (clusters of 2-5 rarely 1) at the  
ends of short dwarf branches (see PINE).

**Leaf margins** The margin or edge of a leaf may  
be entire (without indentations or teeth), serrate  
(with sharp teeth pointing forward), serrulate  
(finely serrate), dentate with coarse teeth  
pointing outward or denticulate (finely dentate),  
crenate or scalloped with broad rounded teeth, un  
dulate with a wavy margin, incised cut into irreg

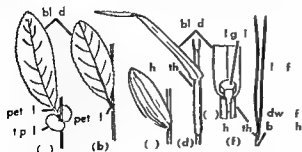


Fig 1 Leaf parts (a) Complete leaf (b) Enstipulate leaf (c) Sessile leaf (d) Leaf of grass (e) Detail of petiole (f) Needlelike leaves of pine

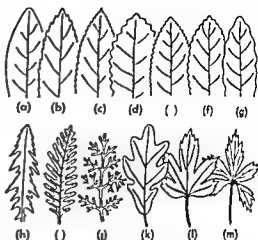


Fig 2 Leaf margins (a) Entire (b) Serrate (c) Serrulate (d) Dentate (e) Denticulate (f) Crenate (g) Undulate (h) Incised (i) Pinnatifid (j) Dissected (k) Lobed (l) Cleft (m) Parted

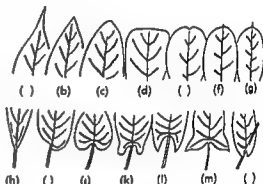


Fig 3 Leaf tips and bases (a) Acuminate (b) Acute (c) Obtuse (d) Truncate (e) Emarginate (f) Mucronate (g) Cuspidate (h) Ciliate (i) Oblong (j) Cordate (k) Auriculate (l) Sigmoidate (m) Hastate (n) Clavate

ular or jagged teeth or segments (if segments are narrow and pointed laciniate, if directed backward runcinate), pinnatifid, deeply pinnately parted (featherlike), dissected, cut into numerous slender, irregularly branching divisions (Fig 2).

When the blade is deeply cut into fairly large portions, these are called lobes. The degree of such lobing may be designated by the following terms: lobed with sinuses usually not more than halfway from margin to midrib (mid vein) or base and with lobes and sinuses more or less rounded; cleft when incisions extend halfway or more from margin to midrib and especially when they are sharp; parted, cut so deeply that the sinuses extend almost to the midrib or base; divided, cut entirely to the midrib, which makes a leaf compound.

**Leaf tips and bases** The tip of a leaf may be acuminate, gradually tapering to a sharp point; acute, tapering more abruptly to a sharp point; blunt or rounded tip; truncate, seeming to be cut off square or nearly so; emarginate, deeply notched at tip but not lobed; mucronate, abruptly tipped with a small short point; cuspidate, ending in a sharp rigid point (Fig 3).



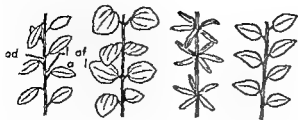


Fig 7 Leaf arrangement (l to r) alternate opposite whorled alternate 2-ranked

**Leaf texture** The texture may be described as succulent when fleshy and juicy, hyaline if thin and almost wholly transparent, chartaceous papery, opaque but thin, scarious thin and dry appearing, hirsute and coriaceous tough, thickish and leathery.

**Leaf duration** Leaves may be fugacious falling nearly as soon as formed, deciduous falling at the end of the growing season (see DECIDUOUS PLANTS), marcescent withering at the end of the growing season but not falling until toward spring or persistent remaining on the stem for more than one season on the plant thus being evergreen. See EVERGREEN PLANTS. PLANT ORGANS. PLANT PHYSIOLOGY. PLANT TAXONOMY. [N.A.]

#### LEAF ANATOMY

In a true leaf the veins are continuous with one or more vascular strands of the stele, the primary vascular cylinder of the stem (see STELE, VASCULAR BUNDLES). The strands that connect the leaf with the vascular system of the stem are the leaf traces. A part of such a leaf trace passes through the outer stem tissue or cortex (see CORTIX, PLANT). Above the point of divergence of the leaf trace from the stele, an interruption of the vascular tissue occurs and this parenchyma-filled area is the leaf gap (see PARENCHYMA). Although there are flattened leaflike structures among the lower plants such as algae, liverwort, and mosses, these are not true leaves because they lack a well-defined vascular system (see ALGAE, HEPATICAE, MUSCI). Some of the primitive vascular plants have microphylls (small leaflike organs) but these have a single unbranched leaf trace, and there is no leaf gap in the stele.

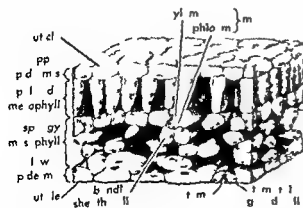


Fig 8 The detailed longitudinal diagram of a bifacial mesophyll leaf

**Internal structure in relation to function** The foliage leaf represents the chief photosynthetic component of most vascular land plants (Fig 8). Although leaves vary greatly in size, shape, and complexity, they consist of the same three tissues as does the stem: dermal or surface layer, vascular, including the xylem and phloem, or conductive tissues, and the ground tissues, parenchyma and sclerenchyma (see EPIDERMIS, PLANT; PHLOEM; SCLERENCHYMA; XYLEM). In the leaf, however, the arrangement and modifications of the tissues have obviously evolved along lines favorable for photosynthesis within various habitats and climates (see EVOLUTION, ORGANIC). The ground tissue or mesophyll of the leaf is primarily chlorenchyma, this is tissue with cells containing chloroplasts (see CELL PLASTIDS). With a maze of intercellular spaces in the chlorenchyma, each cell is exposed to an internal moist atmosphere. The sheetlike distribution of the chlorenchyma in the blade exposes each individual cell to light. The vascular tissue is an intricately branched network of veins embedded in a midplane within the chlorenchyma.

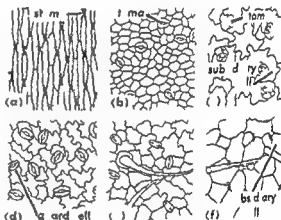


Fig 9 Surface view of the lower epidermis of leaves showing distribution and position of stomata and relative size and shape of subsidiary cells. The dotted lines show the outline of guard cells or subsidiary cells. The abbreviations are: (a) *Iris*, (b) *Vitis* (grape), (c) *S. dum*, (d) *Cap. cum*, (e) *Lycopersicon* (tomato), (f) *O. alia*. Note that the dotted lines indicate that the stomata are sunk into the leaf and the stomatal guard cells and subsidiary cells are in the leaf. (From K. E. A. Plant Anatomy, Wiley 1953)

Every cell of the mesophyll therefore is relatively close to mass movement of water and solutes through the xylem and phloem of the veins—water and mineral ions move chiefly through the xylem, dissolved foods chiefly through the phloem. See PLANT MINERAL NUTRITION OF PLANT TRANSLOCATION (ORGANIC SOLUTES). The nongreen component epidermis is similar to the epidermis of stems and other exposed plant organs (Fig 9). The stomatal guard cell alone, among the epidermal cells, contains chloroplasts, and the stomata constitute openings in the otherwise continuous epidermis. The

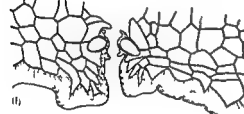


Fig 10 Tra ve t f t m t sh l w  
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(pato) (d) H d (E gl h vy) ( ) M (b )  
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Wley 1953)

ll of wh h e d hy w y f t t y c t  
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n d bt l l bit ap r t ion to me exte n from  
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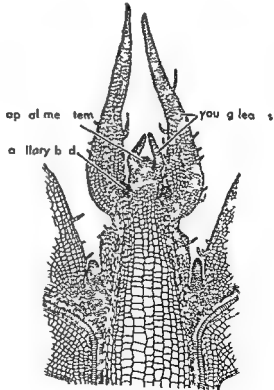


Fig 11 L g t d l ct th gh h t p t m  
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H C S mp d L H T H y f t b f f B t y  
d H p 1953)

spongy mesophyll and dermal tissues because these are the tissues having consistent lateral contiguity. There is only limited lateral contiguity among the palisade cells.

Among leaves in which guttation (secretion of water from the tip and margins of leaves) is known to take place, specialized tissues called hydathodes occur near the vein endings in the blade tips and margin. Most leaf movements are caused by irregular growth rates (see PLANT GROWTH) but certain reversible movements are caused by changes in water content of cells within specialized structures such as the pulvinus (a swelling at the base of the petiole). Ergastic substances (waste products and crystals of mineral elements) accumulate in various living cells of foliage leaves. With leaf abscission (fall) these waste materials are eliminated from the living plant.

**Leaf development.** Each foliage leaf, whether simple or compound, arises as a leaf primordium (a protrusion composed of relatively superficial cells) at the apical meristem or region of cell division at the shoot tip (see MERISTEM APICAL). As

the leaf primordium elongates and thickens by numerous cell divisions a primordial axis forms which later differentiates in part as midrib and petiole (see MITOSIS). On either side of the axillary marginal meristems containing marginal and submarginal initials give rise to a number of cell layers from which the blade tissues differentiate.

In woody plants, tiny folded leaves with recognizable shapes can be distinguished in winter buds. These young undifferentiated leaves develop in buds during the growing season preceding the winter. Then in the spring as the buds open and the bud axis elongates forming the new twig, the tiny leaves unfold and expand to their mature size within a few days. Although during this surge of spring growth a limited amount of cell division occurs, the major activity is concerned with cell enlargement and differentiation. In some woody plants, additional leaves arise and mature during the same growing season. Foliage leaves consist mainly of primary tissues (tissues that arise from the apical meristem or the embryonic stem tip) and, except for some ferns and a few seed plants,

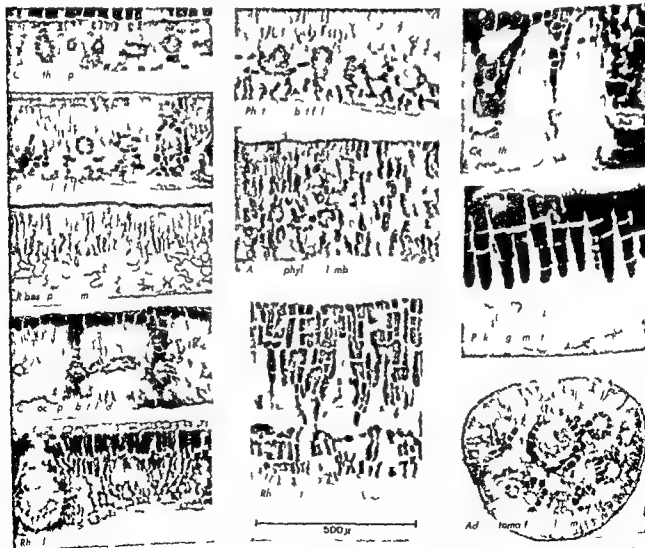


Fig. 12. Transverse sections of the xeromorphic leaf blades of eleven species of evergreen chaparral shrubs from the Santa Monica coastal mountain range of California. Although the mesophyll of most of these leaves

is predominantly palisade the structure is bifacial to adaxial and centric. Note the relatively thin epidermal layers.





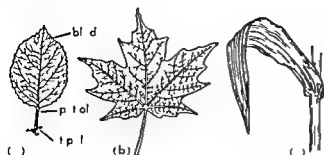


Fig 13 Simple leaves illustrating the arrangement of prominent veins. Blades (a) and (b) have the netted venation; (c) Pinnately veined leaf of apple (b) Palmately veined leaf of sugar maple (c) Parallel venation of a corn leaf (From C. L. Wilson and W. E. L. M. S. Botany, 2nd ed. Holt 1958)

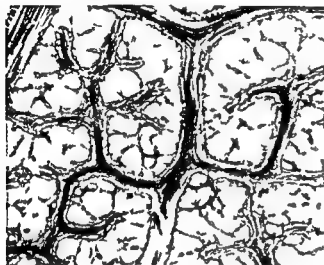


Fig 14 Photomicrograph of the vascular network of *Ficus elastica*. The tissue was cut from a midrib of the blade, showing all the vascular tissue.

lindrical leaves the stomata are distributed over the entire surface. Stomatal frequencies have been reported for a number of species and they range from 14 to 1540 per mm.

An epidermal appendage (trichome or hairlike structure) may be a simple outgrowth of an epidermal cell or a unicellular or multicellular structure. The separate cells may be relatively undifferentiated or secretory (glandular) in nature (see SECRETORY STRUCTURES PLANT). Idioblasts (cells markedly different in shape or function from other cells within the same tissue) and cells with crystals and other inclusions as well as trichomes are constant features of certain species.

**Mesophyll** In bifacial leaves (those with dissimilar tissues above and below) the chlorenchyma consists of one or more layers of palisade cells near the upper (adaxial) surface of the blade and one or more layers of spongy mesophyll cells in the lower (abaxial) portion. There is relatively little lateral continuity among the palisade cells although some of the cells are tangent along portions of their length. Palisade cells subtend epidermal or hypodermal cells and are contiguous with the

spongy mesophyll cells below. In most mesomorphic leaves the spongy mesophyll includes large intercellular spaces and its cells are oriented chiefly within the paradermal (horizontal) plane of the blade. If the cells are branched one or more arms are extended within the paradermal plane. In the midplane of the blade, which includes the intricate system of minor veins, the spongy mesophyll is in the form of continuous nets of living cells closely integrated with the main vein. The intercellular space system in the entire mesophyll tissue of measured leaves accounts for 35-71% of the entire blade volume. Although the greater volumes of space are within the spongy mesophyll, larger internal surfaces (cell wall surface lining the intercellular spaces) are exposed within the palisade mesophyll. Among measured leaves the internal exposed surface is 46-31 times as great as the external blade surface of the same leaves. In a few species the palisade cells are H-shaped or U-shaped; in other species the columnar cells are laterally contiguous by adjoining protuberances. The number of layers of palisade may vary in leaves on the same plant. In lateral blades (blades with similar tissues on both sides) the mesophyll consists entirely of palisade cells or palisade cells occur in both adaxial and abaxial portions on either side of a midregion of spongy mesophyll. In all palisade leaves the cells in the midregion of the blade have some lateral contiguity. In some foliage leaves the palisade and spongy mesophyll are not highly contrasting tissues. The degree of contrast between the closely packed vertically oriented palisade cells and the more diffusely spaced laterally oriented spongy mesophyll cells varies with the species as well as the environment.

**Vascular system** The two main patterns of venation (arrangement of the prominent veins) in broad foliage leaves are netted and parallel (Fig 13). Most dicotyledons have netted veins and the most prominent veins are arranged pinnately (one midvein with secondary veins diverging from it) or palmately (several large veins spreading out from the base of the blade). Among the larger veins an intricate network of minor veins is well distributed within a median plane of the mesophyll (Fig 14). Most monocotyledons have parallel veins (main veins arranged longitudinally within a linear blade) interconnected by smaller veins.

The primary and secondary veins along with associated mesophyll tissues form prominent ridges (vein ribs) on the abaxial side of many foliage leaves. The midrib region of such leaves is similar in structure to the petiole; it consists primarily of one or more vascular bundles of xylem and phloem (the xylem on the adaxial side) and supporting tissue. Xylem or phloem fibers or both may be present and some of the ground tissue on either side of the vein proper may be in the form of a sclerenchyma tissue consisting of elongate cells with unevenly thickened walls (see COLLENCYMA). The parenchyma associated with the main vein has rela-

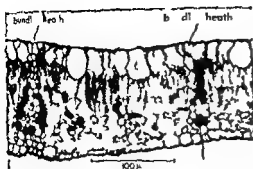


Fig 15 T rse i ct th gh th bf l fol  
ge leaf t f y mo howing with b ndl  
sheath t ns.

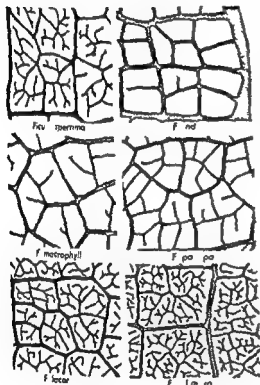


Fig 16 Diag m f m p t r n f  
wene t f Th t ppled th s with b  
d' sh at n Th s p t d by l d  
broad f mb d d th me phyll d k  
b ndl sheath e t

no chl ropla ts However a few xom rphs  
the bundle sheath the principal chl r phyll bear  
i g t ue In ma y d tyled n s l ndle h at  
te on (panels of p enchyma cells) e t d  
fr m the bundle sheath to ne r both ep d m l  
layer S ce th l ndle h ath ext n s u ally  
ha e l til chl rophyll they appear like p r t i n  
betwe n block of ph t ynthesis m s ophyll within  
the blade R dl heath ten i n s e of frequ nt  
o r e ce i d cidu u f l age l a e The min r  
e amify thr ough the m dplane of the me phyll  
arrou mple p ttern (Fig 16) In the p m  
de mal pla m inter n ecting minor ein may  
f r m l ed n t or they may be dendriform (ar  
anged n ntri at bra ch ng y tem ) with nu  
me u e n nding [s r ]

B b l g aphy Se PLANT ANATOMY

## Leaf hopper

Any of umer u spec es f the insect f mily  
Cicad l l d a o der H moptera This i e y l a ge  
family and incl des an uncert m numb l spe es  
f m l l lnder i ect f eq ntly trik ngly  
ma led in brill nt c l rs They re dist g hed  
from m lar f m l ty the d l l e r w f spines  
the h d t l a their wing meet in a deeply  
n erted \ a d t nd b y o d th tip of the h d o r e  
the eyes ar u ally large



R l f hopp Emp a l ght t l n f m  
E l P l m f l d b k f n t l H s r y McG w  
N l 1949)

Alth gh each pe es i ge er lly r t i cted n  
its h b t and the pl nt n whi h t f eds, ther a e  
leath p p s i rtually m ery s t a t whe  
pl nt g ow

S a l a e f e on m c m p r t a n feed ng  
ar ty f f l d nd gard r o p s M y k w  
s h p hoot l e n cotto S HOMOPTERA  
[J D B]

## Learning theories

A f l d f psy h l ogy embr c i g hab ts kill  
mem es a d p bl m sol ng incl d g the  
qu t o n r t e t n d t l i z a o Theo ies f  
learn g ha b e e l ed by psychol g y t w k  
g th t m u l e p o c d t e d r flex,  
o e p t d th g t r a w a r es n e p t  
Se M E M O R Y P R O B L E M S O L V I N G (PSYCHOLOGY)  
S E N S O R Y L E A R N I N G V E R B A L L E A R N I N G

Stimulus response concept Cond t n g e  
p m e t h y l d e d r t n l w f u l r l t h p  
u h a f b l t u m t r a l betwee t m l  
e f f e t s o f a t e f p m t t p n q u t  
m t a e u s r y f e s p t n g h t f o l l w  
g e d u t t h o g h e x t n t n p o c e d m and so

by f w h l p l t s The epiderm l ell n  
h thi g t t m j o r e m f t n tly elo g t  
th i s a x  
Th m n s that a mbedded i the me o  
phyll e r n t f x y l m nd phl m l m n t s c l y  
w r r d e d by b d l e h t d h th of thin  
a l e d p enchyma cell (F g 15) There n  
p p o r t u s b o t h m s Som  
e t e n d g e u t f g l e t h d t y l m  
l e m e n t ) p h l m n d a b d l t t h B d l  
h th r y i m p ) x t y a d may h ly few

on It is assumed that these relationships can serve as the basis for predicting more complex habit phenomena such as those involved in learning a language or operating a typewriter. Application of conditioning principles is not solely by analogy but the effort is made to predict effects that superficially are unlike the relationships used in prediction. For example, the fact that items in the middle of a list are more difficult to memorize than items at the beginning or the end is not reflected in simple conditioned reflex experiments. Yet it is possible to use relationships from these experiments to predict this fact. C. I. Hull was a leading theorist in this field and his proposals have been extended and modified by N. E. Miller and K. W. Spence.

Hull recommended the hypothetico-deductive method. That is, he preferred to set up a small set of postulates which are relationships from simple conditioning experiments usually empirically established. From these he proceeded to deduce more complex phenomena as theorems. These theorems if confirmed by experiments tend to confirm the postulates. In order to simplify the total number of postulates he departed somewhat from purely empirical relationships in order to infer intervening variables as simplifying constructs. These intervening variables given such names as drive or habit strength lie between the observed stimulus or input variables and the measured response or output variables. Hull's most basic formula became

$$sE_R = H_R \times D$$

in which each of the terms is an intervening variable. Thus  $sE_R$  is the inferred reaction potential which if above threshold leads to the measurable overt response  $R$  to the stimulus  $S$ . This reaction potential is some multiplicative function of habit strength ( $sH_R$ ) acquired as a result of repeatedly rewarded experiences and the motivational conditions or drive ( $D$ ) active at the time. Thus habit is activated into behavior only when the drive conditions are adequate. Habit strength depends upon rewarding circumstances known as reinforcements. The complete formula for response evocation includes a number of factors in addition to habit and drive; for example stimulus intensity and the amount of reward used in prior reinforcement.

B. F. Skinner also bases his interpretations on the data from conditioning experiments and accepts reinforcement as the basic operation for response strengthening. He takes a more positivistic approach than Hull but disclaims the notion of intervening variables and refuses to use the hypothetico-deductive method. He has been successful in demonstrating a great deal of lawfulness in learned behavior using a variety of schedules of intermittent reinforcement that is reward on only a predetermined fraction of the trials. In Skinner's spot pecking experiments with pigeons the bird receives food reinforcement following pecking at a

target but the food is delivered only once every 10 minutes. The target at which the pigeon peck changes slowly so that it serves as a kind of clock. The pigeon begins to respond 7-8 minutes following prior reinforcement and is responding more than 10 times per second by the time food reinforcement is delivered (Fig. 1). While his basic work has been on lever pressing by rats and spot pecking by pigeons, Skinner has had some success in applying his analysis also to verbal behavior, school room learning and the behavior of psychotic patients.

There is also a nonreinforcement variety of learning theory according to which the basic relationship for habit formation is merely the contiguous presence of a stimulus with a response (Fig. 2). A sophisticated theory derived from the contiguity principle has been proposed by F. R. Guthrie and given mathematical expression by W. K. Estes and C. J. Burke. The mathematical model is based on the assumption that the learner is sensitive to some fraction of the total stimulus complex available to him and that this fraction becomes attached or conditioned to the response that occurs. Hence as a response is repeated an increasing fraction of the possible stimulus components will have been conditioned to it so that the response becomes increasingly probable on later trials. The model describing this increasing probability makes use of the mathematics of set theory and is known as a stochastic model (see STOCHASTIC PROCESS). The model and its parameters are logically specified and the parameters are then empirically derived by curve fitting (see BIOMETRICS, BIOPHYSICS, MATHEMATICAL). Considerable success has been achieved especially with relatively simple probability learn-

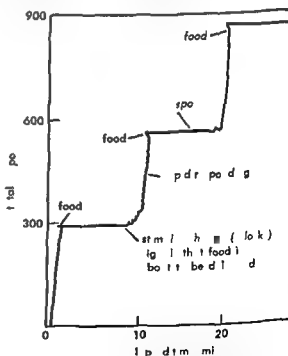
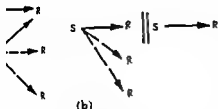


Fig. 1 Contingency of pecking by a pigeon (Adapted from B. F. Skinner and B. F. Skinner, "Schedules of Reinforcement," Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1958).



(b)

Il f m t d f = t S R th o  
IN e f r c t S R th ry C d t ed t m  
J te R th th R R b c th r  
s (S) c t c th p f S  
is called hg ty th ry b c th c  
t S d R th t d d t p o d  
soc h b t w th m (b) R f m t S R  
C d t d t m (S) k R t h g h  
bly th R d R (th p ts  
ay) beq so R b b f l w d (w d d  
f d) by S o l d g t R o g l m t s  
epo se

is argue g wh h of tw ights w l l e m e n  
the pe m enter u es r d m der but  
e h h t elat ely mo e f eq ent tha the

them u l model a e ot limited t th c  
ny t pret ti in fact by p o v d i g tra  
t qu t s th y m y e l that some of  
t n t ion betw n r e f e m e t a d nu  
w t p e t t n s e c e n t f i l l y w m p o t a t  
r a t i e s of model h b e e p i d e d by  
t B h d F M t i l l r F R t l e d o t h  
l l f the w p o t t h u f m t o d l f y  
i b i o a o a t n t h i and e o m m o l y  
p e d i g e t h s t u m l s e p s S R th  
n Some S R p s y h l g t h a e d e v e t e d m e  
m t i o n t c m p l e h m a l s g m r t e  
i l m m z a t i n p e r e p t l y n t k i l l  
w e x p r m e t r e l l w l p p e r t a t h  
a l e v l of c o m p l t y u h a s e r l p o t i n  
w t h a b o r t c i t t g o p l e k p p g t e d e  
s u n t l i s n d u n t l t e f f e c t T h w h  
n o e t u l w r t i n g i n l d e t a t e m e n t s d i g  
m t h l e v l o f c o m p l t y e c e m m n l y k n o w n  
f t a l t f w h m A L l r i A W M l  
a s d B J U d r w o o d e n t m p r y e p e  
t a t

Cognitive concept S t p p o t o t o the S R  
w o n t s e a u m b e f p s y c h o l g i t w h e m  
t z e t h m p r t n f g t f t s n l e r n  
t h t i s p e p t l d u l p o e  
t m e f m r u m t h b u s T h y s l e  
t g n t m l y h a o f d i o n e d f l e  
u t a a g n f l l w g p o c e w h c h t l r e  
o m h w k w w a t l d t o w h t d c n  
n o d f y h b e h r d n g l y W h t s l e r n e d  
n n l y k f l l w n g m p t h l k t h e  
t h r g i a m e m t p s t e n f i e d b y h b t A l  
t h o g h t p g e o n e p n f l g l r e s e d t  
l l t t f m n t t h e o r y t h y l s p e t  
n a d p t t t t h e p t t e d a t f t h t i m

I t u n i n t i m e t h e u o f t h e c l k b y t h e p i g e o n  
i s h e r e t w i t h c o g t i v e t h e o r y C o g n i t i e t h e  
r i t t e n d t u e c h c o n c e p t s a i n s i g h t o r e x  
p e c t a t i n w h e n t h e y d e s c r i b e t h e c n t r o l o f b e  
h a i r T h e n a m a a t e d w i t h t h e c g n i t i e  
p o t n i c l u d e t h e C e t t l p s y c h o l g i t e s p e c  
c a l l y W l f g n g k h l r a n d K u r t L e w a n d o m e  
n e b e h a i o r i t f r i t a n c e E d w a r d C T l m a n  
a n d K a r l S L a h l e y

W l l e f a t t i m e t h e i n t e r t i n l e h a i r a l l a w  
o h a d w e d i n t e r e s t i n n e u r p h y i o l g i c a l c o  
r e l a t e o f l e a r n i n g = e 1950 t h e r e h b e e n r e  
n e w e d n t e r t n b r n p r e e u n d e r l y i n g l e r n  
i n g T h u f a r t h e p e i f c e u r l h a n g e s r e l a t e d t o  
l i m i g a e u k n o w n S e P S Y C H O L O G Y P H Y S I O  
L O G I C A L A N D E X P E R I M E N T A L [ F R I I ]

B i b l o g r a p h y E R H i l g a r d T h e i o f L =  
g 2 d e d 196 J A M c C e o c h n d A L I r o  
T h e P s y c h o l o g y f H m a L r n g d e d 192  
R S W d r t h a n d H S c h l b e g E x p r i m i l  
P s y c h o l o g y r e d 194

## Least action principle of

L i k e H a m i l t o n p r i n c i p l e t h e p r n c i p l e o f l e t  
a t n s a a r a t n l s t e m t t h a t f r m a b a i  
f o m w h c h t h e q a t n o f m t i n f a l a c a l  
d y m a l s y s t e m m y b e d e d u e d ( s = H A M I L  
T O N S P R I N C I P L E ) C o n s i d e r a m e c h a n i c a l s y s t e m  
d e d b y c o r d i t e q q i d t h i r  
a n n i l y j g a t e m o m e n t a p i p j ( s e  
H A M I L T O N S E Q U A T I O N S O F M O T I O N ) T h e e t i o n S  
a o a t e d w i t h a e g m n t o f t h e t r a j e c t o r y o f t h e  
s y s t e m i s d e f i n e d b y

$$S = \int \sum p dq_i \quad (1)$$

w h e t h e r e g a l s i e v a l a t e d l i n g t h e g e n  
e g m e t o f t h t r j c t r y T h e a t o t o f t e r  
t n l y w h t h e t t l e g y E o n r e d T h e  
p r i n c i p l e o f l e t a c t o t a t t h a t t h t j c t o r y  
f t h s y s t e m i t h a t p a t h w h i h m k e t h e a l e o f  
S t a t o n s r e l t e c a b y t h s b t w n t h e  
m e c n f i g r a t i n d f w h c h t h e e g y h s  
t h e m e c t a n t a l u T h p p l e i m i n m d  
a s l y t h e t t a r y o p e r t y i e q u r e d I t i a  
m n m u m p r i n c i p l e f i f f e l y s h r t b u t f i t e  
e g m e t o f t h e t r a j e c t o r y ( = M I N I M A L P R I  
C I P L E S )

Let

$$S + \Delta S = \int \sum (p + \delta p) d(q + \delta q) \quad (2)$$

w h e r e p i + \delta p i a o a l l y c o n s i d e r e d t e r m s q i + \delta q i N e g l e t t h e g e d r d e t e r m s

$$\Delta S = \int \sum (p \delta q + \delta p dq) - \int \sum (\delta p dq - \delta q dp) \quad (3)$$

w h e n i t e g r a t e d b y p a r t h a s b m a d t h e  
i t e g a t d p t s n h g

T h e i n t e g r a l \Delta S r q t h n t g r d t o b  
p e f t d f i t l o f a q a n t i t y w h o d  
i t h T h c o e f f i c i e n t s f t h r a t s

$\delta q_j$   $\delta p_j$  need not vanish separately because the variations are not independent the varied  $q$ s and  $p$ s necessarily being canonically conjugate

$$\sum_j (\delta p_j dq_j - \delta q_j dp_j) = dU(q, p) \quad (4)$$

$$\text{where} \quad \delta p_j = \frac{\partial U}{\partial q_j} \quad \delta q_j = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial p_j} \quad (5)$$

Writing  $U = -H \delta t$  leads to Hamilton's equations of motion

$$p_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} \quad \dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \quad (6)$$

The quantity  $H(q, p)$  known as the Hamiltonian function does not contain the time explicitly because  $U(q, p)$  cannot be a function of the time as the end times are not fixed and in general will vary as the path is varied. Thus the principle is useful only for conservative systems where  $H$  is constant.

If  $H(q, p)$  consists of a part  $H_2$  quadratic in the momenta and a part  $H_0$  independent of the momenta then

$$\begin{aligned} S &= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \sum_j p \dot{q}_j dt \\ &= \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \sum_j p \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_j} dt \\ &= 2 \int_{t_1}^{t_2} H_2 dt \end{aligned}$$

by Euler's theorem on homogeneous functions. Usually  $H_2$  is the kinetic energy of the system so that the principle of least action may be written

$$\Delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} 2T dt = \Delta \int_{t_1}^{t_2} 2(E - V) dt = 0$$

where  $V$  is the potential energy.

The principle of least action derives much importance from the fact that it is the action which is quantized in the quantum form of the theory. Planck's constant is the quantum of action. See QUANTUM THEORY NONRELATIVISTIC [P.M.S.]

*Bibliography* See LAGRANGE'S EQUATIONS

## Least squares method of

A method due originally to A. M. Legendre of obtaining the best values (the ones with least error) of unknown quantities supposed to satisfy a system of linear equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} M_{11}a_1 + M_{12}a_2 + \dots + M_{1n}a_n &= b_1 \\ M_{21}a_1 + M_{22}a_2 + \dots + M_{2n}a_n &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ M_{m1}a_1 + M_{m2}a_2 + \dots + M_{mn}a_n &= b_m \end{aligned}$$

where  $n > m$ . Since there are more equations than unknowns the system is said to be overdetermined. Furthermore the values obtained for the unknowns by solving a given selection  $m$  in number of the equation will differ from the values obtained by solving another selection of equations. In the physical situation the  $b_i$  are measured quantities, the  $M_{ij}$  are known (or assumed) quantities, and the  $a_i$  are to be adjusted to their best values.

Consider a simple example. A quantity  $y$  of interest is supposed (perhaps for theoretical reasons) to be a linear function of an independent variable  $x$ . For a series of selected values  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  of  $x$  one measures values  $y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n$  of  $y$ . The expected relation is

$$\begin{aligned} x_1\alpha + \beta &= y_1 \\ x_2\alpha + \beta &= y_2 \\ x_3\alpha + \beta &= y_3 \end{aligned}$$

and the problem is to find the best values of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  that is respectively the slope and intercept of the line which graphically represents the function. The best values of  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in the least squares sense are obtained by writing

$$\eta = y - (x\alpha + \beta)$$

and asserting that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \eta^2$$

shall be minimized with respect to  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  that is that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \sum_{i=1}^n \eta^2 = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \sum_{i=1}^n \eta^2 = 0$$

This leads to the two equations

$$\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n x_i + n\beta - \sum_{i=1}^n y_i = 0$$

$$\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n x_i - \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = 0$$

which may be solved for  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . For  $m$  rather than two unknowns the generalization is obvious in principle although the labor of solution may be great if  $m$  is large unless a high speed electronic computer is available.

It should be noted that the measurements  $y$  in the example have all been assumed to be equally good. If it is known that the measurements are of variable quality a weight may be attached to each value of  $y$ . The least squares equations are readily modified to take this into account.

$$\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n w_i - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i y_i = 0$$

$$\alpha \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i^2 + \beta \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i - \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i y_i = 0$$

where  $w_i$  is the weight of measurement  $y_i$ .

The least squares equations can be shown to lead to the most probable (in the statistical sense) values of the unknowns under a variety of assumptions about the measurements and their weights. In application in the physical sciences however it is rarely possible to show that one's linear assumption satisfies all or even any of the assumptions. However the condition may be approximately satisfied

in an instance, and the method widely used  
 use of its convenience. The empirical method  
 at which was so determined had the excellent  
 representation of the data in the usual case  
 (see figure 1)

Bibliography: A. G. W. Thng and J. Geffner  
 in: *Journal of Experimental Data* 1943

### Leather and fur processing

Leather and furs have been in continuous production  
 for thousands of years. The materials used are  
 still unique in properties and are among the  
 most complex in chemistry. Although the materials  
 and methods of manufacturing are not yet understood  
 completely, the chemical and physical properties  
 are in the form of products.

The hides and skins from which leather is made  
 are obtained from the skins of the various species  
 (see, for example, the classification of the various  
 types of leather in the literature). The most  
 widely employed is the T. B. L. Leather, which is  
 still the most common. The leather is made from  
 the skins of the various species of animals and is  
 made from the skins of the various species of animals  
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About 80% of all leather produced is for  
 shoes, dresses, and other articles. The leather is  
 made from the skins of the various species of animals  
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Table 1. Animal used for the

Animal	Weight (pounds)	Area (sq. ft.)			
		W	H	U	St. Len
Cattle	813,000,000	1,000,000			6,000,000
Sheep	6,000,000	2,900,000			
Goats	8,000,000	160,000,000			1,000,000
Other	306,000,000	11,000,000			133,000

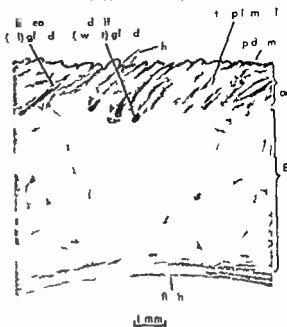


Fig. 1. The histology of the hide.

Wool is the primary product of sheep. It is  
 removed in the packing house or pullery before  
 the skin is processed.

Structure of hides. Figure 1 illustrates the  
 histology of the hide. The dark area is the epidermis,  
 the base of the epidermis is known as the basal  
 layer. The epidermis is made up of the basal  
 layer and the epidermal cells. The epidermis is  
 made up of the basal layer and the epidermal cells.

The lighter deeper area is the dermis, which is  
 produced by the dermal papillae. The dermis is  
 made up of the dermal papillae and the dermal  
 cells. The dermis is made up of the dermal  
 papillae and the dermal cells.

Processing. The tanner's skill is to process  
 the hides and skins into leather. The process  
 is to remove the fat and the water from the  
 hides and skins. The process is to remove the  
 fat and the water from the hides and skins.

After the hides and skins are processed, they are  
 then dried. The drying process is to remove  
 the moisture from the hides and skins. The  
 drying process is to remove the moisture from  
 the hides and skins.

Hides are then placed in a solution of  
 sodium hydroxide (NaOH) with  
 water. The solution is to remove the  
 fat and the water from the hides and skins.  
 The solution is to remove the fat and the water  
 from the hides and skins.

Table 2 Leather properties and uses

Properties and uses	Cowhide		Calfskin	Sheepskin (lambskin)	Goatskin (kid skin)	Horsehide
	Light (upper)	Heavy (sole)				
Unit of sale	side ( $\frac{1}{2}$ hide)	bends shoulders 1 ell es heads	whole skin	whole skin	whole skin	bits fronts des
Area or weight	10-25 sq ft	30-60 lb per hide	3-10 sq ft	3-10 sq ft	2-8 sq ft	3-7 sq ft per cut
Thickness	2-6 oz	5-12 iron	2-4 oz	1-4 oz	1-3 oz	3-6 oz
1 oz = $\frac{1}{64}$ in 1 iron = $\frac{1}{48}$ in						
Main uses (indicated by x)						
Shoe uppers	x		x		x	x (Cordovan)
Shoe linings			x	x	x	
Shoe soles		x				
Garments	x		x	x		x
Gloves	x (work)			x	x	x (work)
Handbags	x		x	x		
Billfolds	x		x	x	x	
Luggage	x	x				
Transmission belts		x				
Mechanical	x	x				
Special characteristics						
Abrasion resistance	E	E	E	E	G	E (Cordovan)
Flex no. life	E	E	E	G	E	E
Appearance	E		S	C	C	S (Cordovan)
Finish (polish)	E		S	C	E	S (Cordovan)
Comfort	E	E	E	E	E	G (Cordovan)
Drape	G		G	E	G	G
Protection	E	E	E	G	E	E
Dimensional stability	E	E	E	E	E	E
Vapor permeability	C	M	C	E	G	L (Cordovan)
Relative cost	M	M	H	L	H	H (Cordovan)
Tannages (indicated by x)						
Chrome	x		x	x	x	x
Vegetable	x	x	x	x		
Alum				x		
Formaldehyde				x		
Tensile strength 1 in. width						
sample thickness as used	2-6 lb	700 lb	60 lb	90 lb	1 lb	6 lb
Bursting strength	300 lb		300 lb	60 lb	20 lb	300 lb

E excellent G good M medium L low S superior H high

Sol leather hides and many others are relimed after dehairing to prepare fibers for tanning. Cattle hides for upper leather are split after liming (alternately after chrome tanning) to reduce thickness to that acceptable to modern wearers. The stock is next delimed that for chrome tanning in a bath of pancreatic enzyme activated with a solution of an ammonium salt which also selectively removes certain proteins. Hides for heavy vegetable tanned leathers are immersed in solutions of weak organic acids such as lactic or hydroxyacetic for surface lime removal without loss of hide substance. The stock now leaves the beam house for further treatment.

**Tanning** Tanning is the changing of hides and skins into insoluble nonputrescible leather without destruction of the original structure. Furs are partially tanned or dressed without loosening or damaging the filaments or fur.

For chrome tanning the stock is saturated with a solution of a reduced chrome salt usually by diluted basic chromium sulfate  $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})\text{SO}_4$  in a revolving drum. After the hide is saturated this unstable compound is precipitated by mild alkali such as sodium bicarbonate  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  and combined chemically with the collagen. In vegetable tanning the stock is given a series of baths of gradually increasing strengths of vegetable extract mainly imported wattle or quebracho. This countercurrent method assures complete penetration of the fibers without distortion of the hide. Vegetable extracts are adsorbed but do not form strong chemical bonds with collagen.

In a process known as tawing alum is used as a partial tannage supplementing or replacing chrome. Formaldehyde is sometimes used to produce white fluffy leathers. Zirconium salts make pure white leather of great strength.

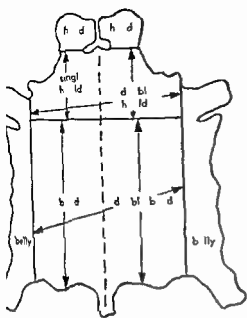


Fig 2 Sol l th ut f m th h d e

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H y l e t h s e r e l y d y e d b u t r g o n n  
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n g d r y g d a b q n t p r c s i n g a n d t l b a  
a t e t h e f i n h d l e a t h L b t e e r y  
b e e u s e t h e n a t l i l h e b e s a p o f i e d n d  
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n l p e l t a d t h c a e o b s e r v e d n t p e s r v t o n  
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T h p o e o r o r d e s e r r e h y d t e s t h e p e l t b y  
s o k g t i n w t d e m e s d h e i g f l h w t h  
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t a w g F o r m a l d h y d c b e u s e d s e i t h e t h e  
m p l e r t h p a r t i a l t n g a l s o n a t l l  
d h y d e f o m t h d e m p t i o n o f o x d z n g l  
r e e d T h e d s e d p l t m u t b e s o f t n d d a p e y

S b e q u t o p e r t s a r e c l o e l y g u r d e d s e r  
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h d t m k t h m e v n l m t t i o n f u r a r e  
s l y d y d t m l t e t h n a t l c l r i g D y e  
m u t o t t n f e t t h p e n o l o t h n g o f t h  
w r p c e l l e d r o c k s g

W h e n n e c e s s r y g u r d h t e r m e d b y  
p e a l m h i s F s e p a t e d l y t u m b l e d n  
l e d o s n e d d m t s f i t h m p o l  
h t h f i l m e t a d r m e x d y e S w d t  
r p l e d w l u t h l l s r e f i d d e d t o s  
s t m t h p o l h n g L t e s h e e d b y l c  
t i f y n g m h s n w h c h r a p d i l y r e v l g c y l  
d w i t h l t e r n t g q u a n t f e l t h n g a r d  
n d h t o m b n d r t h f i l a m e n t s



Skilled orters select matching skins and from these the furrier pieces together the garment. Dropping machines cut and stitch the pieces so that no joint can be detected along the surface of the fur.

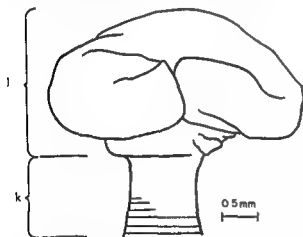
Mouton clo ely resembling beaver is made from sheepskins with the wool attached. Only 5% of the pelts available have fine enough wool and adequate fiber density for the purpose. Raw pelt are washed with detergent solution, tanned with alum, dyed, combed, clipped and ironed repeatedly to straighten the filaments. Formaldehyde is used to set filament and to enhance luster.

Persian lamb is made from the skins of unborn lambs from Afghanistan. It possesses fine filaments and tight curls. Rabbit skunk, opo um and muskrat are given appropriate variations of the treatment outlined above to produce the desired imitations, such as imitation ermine from rabbit. Labeling restrictions protect the customer from misrepresentation. [K E B]

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## Lecanicephaloidea

An order of tapeworms of the subclass Cestoda. All species are intestinal parasites of elasmobranch fishes. They are distinguished by having a peculiar scolex divided into two portions. The lower portion is collarlike and bears four small suckers; the upper portion may be discoid or tentacle-bearing and



Scolex of a lecanicephaloid tapeworm

is provided with glandular structures (see illustration). The scolex is usually buried in the intestinal wall of the host and may produce local pathology. The anatomy of the segment is very similar to that of the Proteocephaloidea. Some authorities place the lecanicephalids in the order Tetraphylloidea to which they are obviously closely related. Essentially nothing is known of the life history of lecanicephaloids. See CESTODA, TETRAHYLLIDFA [C F R]

## Leech

Any one of about 290 species belonging to the class Hirudinea, phylum Annelida. Leeches are primarily freshwater animals, however, some live in damp earth and some are marine. Most of them are parasitic on aquatic vertebrates, although some are predaceous on worm, snail, and other invertebrates. Turtle leech is an especially common host. Some species attack the inside of the mouths of fishes and can cause their death. The large land leeches of southeastern Asia sometimes cause severe pain when they attack man.



The leech *Hirudo medicinalis*; length to 8 in. (From J G Wood, *Popular Natural History Portfolio*, Cate 1885)

The medicinal leech *Hirudo medicinalis* was formerly widely used in Europe for blood letting and may still be rented in a few places for the removal of blood from black eye and other bruises. The horse leech *Haemopsis marmoratus*, a large predaceous species living in the mud, is highly favored in parts of the Midwest for catfish bait.

In their basic anatomy, leeches are similar to the earthworm. They lack the coelom; greatly reduced by the invasion of theenchymal cells between and around the internal organs. Leeches vary in length from  $\frac{1}{2}$  in. to 1 ft. Most American species are less than 2 in. long. They are flattened and composed of 34 segments, but appear to have many more segments because of grooves around each segment. They are usually greenish to black in color, but a few are brightly marked. They are provided with a sucker at each end.

Leeches are hermaphroditic. In some species a spermatophore containing sperm is attached to the back of the recipient, where it digests its way into the body cavity and fertilizes the egg. In others copulation occurs usually with reciprocal fertilization. Eggs are deposited in a cocoon and hatch into young resembling the adult. See EARTHWORM, HIRUDINFA [J O B]

## Leg

The portion of the lower limb between thigh and foot. All limbed vertebrates show a similar structural pattern based on embryologic development, but with differences in proportion and rotation. The leg bones are the tibia, a large weight-bearing bone, and the slender rodlike fibula. Compartmentalized muscle groups include functional sets which act on the foot, ankle, and thigh. Such muscles

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## Legume

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## Legume forages

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S o m l g u m e h e r e t o t g z i n g a n i  
 m a l t s s o m t i m e s a u b l a t B t y c d  
 f e r m e n t f l g s s o c t d w i t h t h  
 l g u m e f o g e C o n d s a b l e e s t o t b e e x  
 e c u e d t h f e e d g a n d t g e f t h e p l n t  
 C. A L F A I F C L O E R C O M P E A K I D Z U L E S P E

DEZA LUMINE s e also COVER CROPS LEGUME  
 P O I O O L S P L A N T [R T]

Bibliography G a s s U S D A Y e a b o o k A g r  
 1948 H D H g e s e t l (e d ) F o a g s 1951  
 C. V P i p e r F o r a g e P l t a n d T h r C u l t u r e  
 e d 1954

## Leishmaniasis

A n i f e c t i o u s d e a c a u e d l y f l a g l l a t e p r m o  
 a s p e c i e s f t h e g e n u L i s h m a i a T h d i s e e i s  
 t r n m t r e d t o m n b y t h e b t i n g f l y P h l b t m s  
 a d d t i b t d w i d e l y i n t r p i c a l a n d u l t o p i a l  
 a r a v c e r a l u t a n e o u a n d m o c u t n e o v  
 l e i h m a n i a s a r e t h t r e h u m a n v a r i e t u s u a l l y  
 d t i n g h e d T h e t h e e r r e p d n g p e f  
 t h f l a g l l a t d e s c r i b e d f r m m n e a l m i n  
 d i t g u i h a b l e e p t f o r t h e s y m p t m m  
 p l x e t h e y c a e i n t m o y a d a m i d i m m  
 p o d s e e d f r s t m e n t a n d t h e l i s n g f l y  
 e t r o l l e d h e s t v b y t h e o f i n e t i c d e s

V i c a l l e i s m a a r k a l a z a r i c h a c i e  
 i z e d b y p o l n g e d f e v e r e n l a r g e d p l e e n a n e m i a  
 d r e a c i t h e n u m b e r o f w h i t e l l c h a n g e i n  
 p l a s m a p o t n n d o f t n b y p g m t a t n o f t h e  
 k i C u l t e s f b l o o d o r t i u e c l l t i n e d  
 p e p a t n f i t s a e e d i t d e m t r a t e L  
 d n t h c a u a t e r g i m

C u t a n e u l e i h m n i a s s a t t i b u t e d t t h e s p e  
 e L s p a l e s s i n m a n a r e l i m i t e d t o t h e  
 k i a n d b e u t a e o u t T h h m a n d i e a s e  
 s b e n i g n e n w h n u n t e a t e d i t n t n u s  
 t h g h u t a p e r o d o f m o n t h I t s p o n t s e o l y  
 e f f l i m t e d d r a t i o n l e a e s a n d e l i b l e s c a r  
 a n d i f t e n f l l w e d b y m m u t y t o e n d a t  
 i n k v e r y i n u a l n p o t o n d e s

M o c t a e o u s l e h m n i a s t t a k s t h e l i n g  
 o f t h m u t h a d s l p a a g e s s w e l l a t h e k i n  
 a n d u b u t a n u s t s u e L o s o f p t s o f t h e  
 m o t h p h r y n x o r n t r i s o c c f u r t h e r m t i l  
 t m y r u l t f o m t h e f r m t i f r i f i a l  
 c m m u a t n b t w e t h n e a n d m t h L  
 b a f n s f o d n t h e l s n a n d i t s i m m e d i  
 t t y s e D I P T E R A T R Y P A O S O I A T I D A E

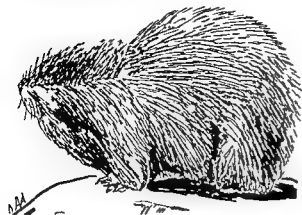
[O W]

## Leitneriales

A n d r f t h e p l t b e l a s D o t y l d n a e c n  
 t a n g o n e f m l y (L e u t n i a e ) w i t h o n e g n u  
 (L i n a ) d p c e (L f l o i d a a) T h e  
 p l a n t s r e h u b m l l t r e s g o w n s w m p  
 o f t h e u t h e n U e d S t t h e m e c r k w o d  
 i e d b e a s e t h e y p d c e t h e l g h t e s t w o d  
 ( p e c f i g s t y 021) g w n i n t h U n e d S t a t e s  
 S D I C O T Y L E O N E E B R Y O P H Y T A P L A N T  
 K I N G D O M [P D S]

## Lemming

A n y f e v e a l a t h m a l l h o r t a l e d m a l l  
 d o d e t f o n d n E u a a d N r t h A m i a  
 T h e t h d t t g e n r a f i m l a n i m l  
 l l e d l m m s a l l t h u b f a m i l y M r o t i n a  
 f a m l y C t d a T h e b r w n l e m m i n g g e u



The collared lemming: *Dicrostonyx rubricatus* length 10.6 in. (From E. L. Palmer, Fieldbook of Natural History, McGraw-Hill, 1949)

*Lemmus* are tundra and near tundra animals of the far North. Included here is the Norway lemming famous for its extensive suicidal migrations into the sea which occur when the population threatens to destroy its food supply. The American species has dispersal migrations of a much milder character. The collared lemmings, genus *Dicrostonyx*, are the only small rodents that turn white in the winter. They are strictly tundra animals. The bog lemmings of the genus *Synaptomys* occur over most of the northern and eastern United States and much of Canada. See MOUSE, RODENTIA. [J. D. B.]

## Lemniscate (of Bernoulli)

A curve shaped like the figure eight, referred to by James Bernoulli in 1694. Let  $F_1, F_2$  be points of a plane  $\pi$  with  $F_1F_2 = 2a$ ,  $a > 0$ . The locus of a point  $P$  of  $\pi$  which moves so that  $PF_1 \cdot PF_2 = b^2$ , where  $b$  is a positive constant, is called an oval of



A lemniscate

Cassini. The lemniscate is obtained when  $b^2 = a^2$ . Its equation in rectangular coordinates is  $(x^2 + y^2)^2 = a^2(x^2 - y^2)$  and in polar coordinates  $\rho^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$ . It is the locus of the point of intersection of a variable tangent to a rectangular hyperbola with the line through the center perpendicular to the tangent. The area enclosed by the lemniscate  $\rho^2 = a^2 \cos 2\theta$  is  $a^2$ . See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY. [L. M. B.]

## Lemon

The fruit *Citrus limon*, commercially the most important of the acid citrus fruits. Its origin is somewhat obscure but evidence points to southern China and upper Burma as its native home. There are many varieties with wide diversity in tree vigor, size, shape, and character of fruit. Many of the

diverse lemon types are no doubt hybrids with other citrus. The rough lemon is probably such a hybrid and while scarcely edible it is quite important because it is frequently used as a rootstock on which other citrus is budded (see BUDDING).

The true lemons are small evergreen trees the leaves of which have petioles with very narrow wings and give off a lemon odor when crushed. The fruits are medium sized and elongated with 9-11 segments and few seeds. See FRUIT (BOTANY).



The lemon *Citrus limon* (From L. H. Bailey, ed., The Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture, 2nd ed., Macmillan, 1937)

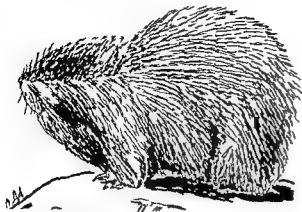
In 1955-1956 the United States produced 31% of the world supply of lemons. California by far the leading lemon producing state had 61,500 acres in 1957. Arizona second in lemon acreage, rapidly increasing its acreage. The average yearly value of the lemon crop in the United States at the packing house from 1948 to 1958 was \$40,810,800.

No other citrus fruit has such a wide variety of uses. Lemon juice, very high in vitamin C, is used in beverages and to garnish meats and fish. It has many culinary uses, especially in pies, cakes, ice candies, jellies, and marmalades. Citric acid, pectin, and lemon oil are by products of the fruit. See CITRIC ACID, FAT AND OIL, EDIBLE PECTIN. See also FRUIT (TREE). [F. E. C.]

## Length

Extension in space. Length is one of the three fundamental physical quantities (the other two being mass and time) and therefore cannot be defined in terms of simpler quantities. It is defined in terms of the operations involved in its measurement in reference to an arbitrary standard called the international meter. Calibrated sticks or tapes are constructed by direct or indirect comparison with the prototype meter which is preserved at Sevres, France, various multiples and submultiples of the meter are indicated by calibration marks. Lengths of objects or distances between points are made by direct comparison with calibrated sticks and tapes. Decimal multiples and submultiples of the meter are frequently used in specifying length in English speaking countries (the foot (0.3048 m) is a length unit. See F. [D. W.]





The collared lemming *Dicrostonyx brachyotus* length to 6 in (From E. L. Palmer: Fieldbook of Natural History McGraw-Hill 1949)

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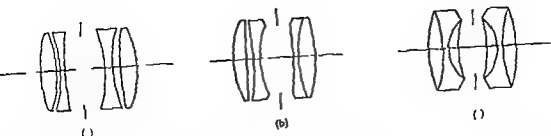


Fig. 2 Type of systems (a) C I (b) T (c) Dog

d find n t f 16 o e r t o t l f i l d o f 50 (Fg a)  
 Th len m be a c m e t e d o b l e t f r c o e c t g  
 h r o t r r (F 2b) F p r a c t i l r a  
 a r e i s e d m e u w i t h t p t w a r d t h e f i l m  
 f i u s e d

C o m b i n g t o m n c l e e s t f m m  
 m e t r i c a l l s t h e n t r l t o p m k e s t p a b l  
 i c o r r e c t s t i g m a t n d d t o t o e r r f o r  
 m a p e r t u r e n d l g f i e l d a n g l e s (F 2c)  
 Th b a t y p e o f w i d e a n g l e h y e c t i v e i s t h e H y  
 p e r g e n n t u n g o f t w m e s u s l n c n  
 c e n t r i c w i t h t p (Fg 2d) Th t y p e f s y t e m  
 a b e c r r e c t d f r i g m a t m n d f i l d c r r  
 t r e t o t l f i e l d a n g l e o f 180 b u t i n n l y  
 b e u s e d f a m a l l a p r t e (f/12) e s t c a n n o t  
 b e c o r r e c t e d f p e r t r e r r o r Th a p r t e n  
 b e e s e d t o f/4 a t t h e p e e f i f i l d a n g l e b y  
 t h k g n d c h r m a t i n g t h m e u l e e  
 A s d o g y m m t r i a l e l e m e n t s i t h c n t e  
 t h o t o d o f t h b a l e m e n t

T p r n a h r m a t c m e y m m e t r i c a l l y  
 r g d u d t h t p l e d t h a p l n a t t y p e f  
 (Fg 2) Th t y p w p h e r c a l l n d  
 u n i c a l l y c o r r e c t e d S e t h e f i e l d c o u l d n t  
 r r e d c m p m e w a b d b y b l  
 e g t a s a g t a l a n d m r d n a l f i l d c u r v a t u  
 r t h a t e m u r f a c l e m r t d t h o t h  
 a b k t h f i l m

f a r g m t c l n s Th d s c r y o f t h e P e t z v a l  
 a n d t o f r i f i l d r e c t n l e d t o t h e o t t n l  
 l g m t l l e f w h h i g m t s m a d  
 c u r v a t u e f f i l d a c o t d S h l s e s m t  
 c o l a n e g t i c m p m e s

Th C e l (C) t y p e c o m o f t w a  
 p a r e d h r m t d b l e t n e e a b d f t h e  
 s t o p (Fg 3a) Th C o o k s t p l e c m b i n s n g  
 t r i a t h a p e r t r t p w i t h t w p s t  
 l e n e s n f t a d t h e r s b k l t  
 l l e d a T e c a (Fg 3b) i t h l a s t p o t l  
 a c e m t e d d b l e t a H e l r f f h t h p t  
 l e n e s a e m t d Th D g r t y p n t f  
 t r e n t e m t h t s n l y s y m m t r c l w i t h

r e p c t t t h e t o p e a c h s y s t m n t s n i n g t h r e o r  
 m o r e l e n e s (Fg. 3c)

M o d e n l n s T r e a e t h e p e r t u r t h e  
 f i l d o b t h i t i f r e q u e n t l y a d a n t g e o u s t  
 p l a c e l e s b y t w s e p a r a t e d l n e n c e t h e  
 m e p w e r i a h e d w i t h l r g r r d i a n d t h  
 m e a n t h a t t h e i g l e l e e a r e u s e d a t m l l e  
 r e l a t i v e a p e r t u r e Th e p l a c i g f i n g l e l e s  
 b y a m n t d l h a n g t h e c l o r b a l a c e a n d  
 t h u s t h e d e s i g n e r m a y a c h m o e f a o r a b l e c o  
 d u c t i o n A l c o t h e t r o d u c t i o n o f n e w t y p e s o f  
 g l a s (f i s t h g l c o t a n g b a r m l t e r t h e  
 g l a s e s c t a i g r a e e a r t h s) l e d t o l e n  
 e m e n t w h c h f t h e s a m e p o w e r h a e w e a k e s r  
 f a e s a n d a r e t h r e f o r e f g t h e l p t t h e l e s  
 d e s i g n e

O f m d r n d e s i g n s t h e m o t c e f u l a r e t h e  
 t o n a r a m o d i f i e d t i p l e f i r m o f w h i h  
 h w n n Fg 4a t h B i t a r (Fg 4b) a m o d i f i e d  
 G u s b j e t i e w i t h a l a g e p t e a n d a f i e l d o f  
 a b o t 24 a n d t h T p o g o (Fg 4c) a p e c o p i c  
 l e w i t h p p l e m a t r y t h c k m n c s t o p e r m t  
 t h e r r e c t n f p e t u r a b e r a t n f o r a m o d e r  
 a t p r t e n d a l g e f i e l d O n e r t w o p l a n e  
 p a a l l p l t e s s m t u m e s a d d d t c o r r e c t  
 d s t i n

S p e c i f b j e c t s l e t i f q u a l i t y d e s r b l e t o  
 h n g t h f a c a l f n t h o f a n b j e t i e Th i s  
 c o m e t m e d o b y m b i g a f i x e d n e a r c m  
 p e t b e h a d t h t o p w i t h a n e x h n g e a b l e e t  
 o f c o m p n n t s f r t o f t h s t o p Th d i g n e r  
 h s t b t h t h e r r o r s o f t h t w o p r i s r  
 b l n e e d o t e g d l e o f w h c h f o t c m p n t

Th t l e p h t b j e t a p l l y c o n s t r u c t e d  
 o b j e t i e w i t h t h r e r d l p a s m f r o t f t h e  
 l e t o m b n e l n g f e l l e g t h w i t h s h r t  
 b a k f s S T E L E P H O T O L E S

Th P e t z l b j e c t e n e o f t h e o l d e t d e i g n s  
 (1840) b u t o n e o f t h m t i n g e n u l t n i t n  
 g e e l f f u l n e s o d e d t w p i w i d l y  
 e p t e d f m a c h t h r Th f i t p a r

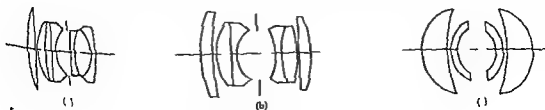


Fig. 4. Mod ph tog ph l (a) S o (b) B i (c) T p g

**Cemented lenses** Consider a compound lens made of two or more simple thin lenses cemented together. Let the power of the  $k$ th simple lens be  $\phi$  and its Abbe value  $\omega$  (see CHROMATIC ABERRATION). The difference between the powers of the combination for wavelengths corresponding to  $C$  and  $F$  is

$$P_F - P_C = P/N = \sum \phi / \omega$$

where  $N$  may be considered to be the effective  $\omega$  value of the combination. The  $\omega$  values of optical glasses vary between 25 and 70 with the  $\omega$  value of fluorite being slightly larger ( $\omega = 95.1$ ). By using compound lenses effective values of  $N$  can be obtained outside this range. Color correction is achieved as  $N$  becomes infinite so that  $P_F - P_C = 0$ . A lens so corrected is called an achromat. In optical design it is sometimes desirable to have negative values of  $N$  to balance the positive values of the rest of the system containing collecting lenses. Such a lens is said to be hyperchromatic. A cemented lens corrected for more than two colors is said to be apochromatic. A lens corrected for all colors of a sizable wavelength range is called a superchromatic lens. See OPTICAL MATERIALS.

### LENS SYSTEMS

Optical systems may be divided into four classes: telescopes, oculars (eyepieces), photographic objectives and enlarging lenses. See EYEPIECE, MICROSCOPE, OPTICAL.

**Telescope systems** A lens system consisting of two positive systems combined so that the back focal point of the first (the objective) coincides with the front focal point of the second (the ocular) is called a telescope. Parallel entering rays leave the system as parallel rays. The magnification is equal to the ratio of the focal length of the first system to that of the second.

If the second lens has a positive power, the telescope is called a terrestrial or Keplerian telescope and the separation of the two parts is equal to the sum of the focal lengths.

If the second lens is negative, the system is called a Galilean telescope and the separation of the two parts is the difference of the absolute focal lengths. The Galilean telescope has the advantage of shortness (a shorter system enables a larger field to be corrected) but the Keplerian telescope has a real intermediate image which can be used for introducing a reticle or a scale into the intermediate plane.

Both objective and ocular systems are in general corrected for certain specific aberrations while the other aberrations are balanced between the two systems. See TELESCOPE, TELESCOPE, ASTRONOMICAL.

**Photographic objectives** A photographic objective images a distant object onto a photographic plate or film. See PHOTOGRAPHY.

The amount of light reaching the light entrance layer depends on the aperture of the optical system which is equivalent to the ratio of the lens diameter to the focal length. Its reciprocal is called the  $f$ -number. The smaller the  $f$ -number, the more light strikes the film. In a well corrected lens (corrected for aperture and asymmetry error) the  $f$ -number cannot be smaller than 0.5.

The larger the aperture (the smaller the  $f$ -number) the less is the scene luminance required to expose the film adequately. Therefore, if pictures of objects in dim light are desired, the  $f$ -number must be small. On the other hand, for a lens of given focal length, the depth of field is proportional to the aperture.

Since the exposure time is the same for the center as for the edge of the field, it is desirable for a much light to get to the edge as to the center; that is, the photographic lens should have little vignetting.

The camera lens can be considered as an eye looking at an object (or its image) with the diaphragm corresponding to the eye pupil. The Gaussian image of the diaphragm in the object (image) space is called the entrance (exit) pupil. The angle under which the object (image) is seen from the entrance (exit) pupil is called the object (image) field angle. For most photographic lenses, the entrance and exit pupils are close to the respective nodal points; for such lenses, the object and the image field angles are equal.

In general, photographic objectives with large fields have small apertures; those with large apertures have small fields. The construction of the two types of systems is quite different. One can say in general that the larger the aperture, the more complex the lens system must be.

There exist cameras (so called pinhole cameras) that do not contain lenses. The image is then produced by optical projection. The aperture in this case should be limited to  $f/22$ .

**Other types of lenses** A single meniscus lens with its concave side towards the object and with its stop in front at its optical center gives good

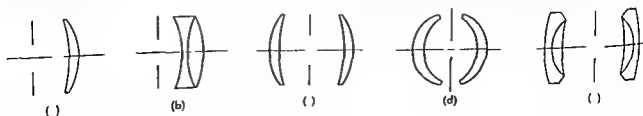
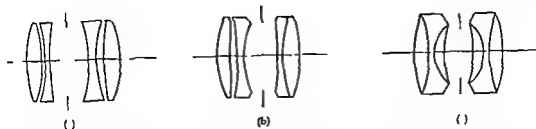


Fig. 2 Older photographic lenses: (a) Meniscus, (b) Simple achromatic, (c) Petzval, (d) Hyper-wedg, (e) Symmetrical chromatic.



Type F stigm ( ) C I (b) T ( ) D g

1: 1/16 er t sl fld of 50 (Fig 2a)  
m be a c m ted d blet f corr cting  
u err (F 2b) F p cts l ea n  
n ed c u s w th the top t w a d s th film  
a sed

mb g t me is s l n s to f r m a y m  
c l l w th nt l s t p m k e s a p b l e  
r r e c t t r o m a t a d d s t n e r o r f o r  
l p e r t e s a d l a r g e f l d a n g l (F g 2c)  
b o t t p e o f d e s l b j e t i s t h e H y  
n e c a n t g o f t m n n c u l e e n  
i t h t e p (F g 2d) T h i s t y p e o f s y s t e m  
b e r r e c t e d i a t e m t m a d f l d c r v a  
e a t o t a l f i e l d a n g l o f 180 b u t i t n l y  
e d f m a l l p e r t u r e (f/12) c e t e n o t  
r e c t d f p e t e r o T h e a p r t i s n  
s e r v e d t o 1/4 a t h e x p n e f l d a n g l e b y  
k g a n d c h m a t i z i n g t h e m n c u l e e  
d d g s y m m t a l e m t m i n t h e c e t e r o r  
i t d e o f t h e b c l m n s

p o u s h m a t m e i s s y m m e t r i c a l l y  
u p e d d t h t p l e d t t h p l t t y p o f  
(F 2) T h t y p e w a p h c a l l y n d  
m n t a l l y r e c t e d s c t h f i e l d l d o t  
r e c t e d a m p r m w a s c h i e f e d b y b a l  
s a g i t t a l d m e i d n l f l d c r v a t u r  
b t o e m g a u s c i e l e i t n d t h e t h e r  
b k f t h f i l m

f o u r g m a t l n s T h e d o r y o f t h e P e t z v a l  
e d t n f r f l d r t n l e d t h e o n t u i n  
a n t i g m t l e s e f w h c h t i g m a t s m d  
n t e e f l d a c e t S c h l n s m s t  
o n a g a t i m p o e s t s

T h C e l (G a ) t y p e o n t f t w o i r  
r a d a b m t i e d u b l t n e a h d e o f t h e  
u p (F g 3a) T h C o o k e s p l e t m b i e s a n g a  
l n t h p r t u r t p w i t h t w o p t i  
e s o e i n f n t d t h o t h r b a k I t  
n e d T e (F g 3b) i f t h l a s t p o t i n  
a c e m e n t e d u b l t a H l a f i b t h p s t  
m e s e m e t d T h D o g t y p e i s t f  
b e n i t m t h a n e l y s y m m t l w t h

r e p e c t t t h t o p a c h y t e m c o n t a i n i n g t h r e e o r  
m r e l e e (F i g 3c)

M d e r l n s T i c e a t h e a p e r t u r e t h e  
f i e l d r b t h a t i f e q n t l y d a n t a g i s t r e  
p l a n l e n b y t w p r a t e d l n e i n t h e  
m e m w e i s a c h i e d w i t h l r g e r r a d a n d t h  
m e a n t h a t t h e a n g l e l e m r e d t m a l l r  
r e l t u a p e t e T h e r p l a g o f a g l e l e n s  
b y a c e m n t e d l e n c h a g e t h e o l o r l a l n e e a n d  
t h u t h e d i e r m a y c h i e v e m e f a o l l c o  
d i t n M e e r t h e s t o d t i n o f n e w t y p e s o f  
g l s (f i s t t h g l e c t a n g h a r m l a t t h  
g l a s e n t n g r e e r t h) l e d t l n e l e m  
e n t w h h f r t h e m p w i t h e w e a k e r u r  
f a c e a d e t h e r f o r e o f g r e t h l p t o t h e l n  
d e s i g e r

O f m d e n d e s n s t h e m t s c c f l a r e t h  
S o n a a m o d i f i e d t r p l e t o n f m o f w h h m  
s h w n i n F i g 4a t h B t a r (F g 4b) m d i f i e d  
G a s b j e t i w i t h l a r g e p e r t u r e n d a f i e l d f  
a b o u t 24 a d t h T p o g (F g 4c) p i s o p t i  
l e n w i t h u p p l e m e n t r y t h k m e c i t p e r m i t  
t h c t r o o f a p r t u r e b r a t n s f o r a m o d e r  
t e p e t u e d a l g f i l d O e t w p l a  
p a r l l p l a t s e s o m e t m d d e d t c r r c t  
d s t t i

S p c i l b j a s i t i f r q u t l y d e s i r a b l t  
c h n t h e f c l l e n g t h f n o b j e t i e T h i  
s o m t u m d n e b y m b a f i x e d n r m  
p n m b e h i n d t h t o p w i t h a n x h m b l e e t  
f o m p e n t f o t f t h t o p T h e d e g e r  
h a t b e t h t t h o r o f t h t w p a r t a r  
b a l e d u t e g r d l e s s f w h h f o n t m p e t  
n e

T h t e l e p h t o b j e t i s a p e a l l y c t r c t e d  
o b j e t w i t h t h m o d l p t i f o n t o f t h e  
l n s t o c m b e a l g f c l l g t h w i t h a s h o r t  
b k f s S T E L E P H O T O L E S

T h e P e t z v a l b j t i e o f t h l d t d e g n  
(1840) b u t o e f t h e m t n e n I t i t i  
g n a l f f o l e m r d e e d t w p w d e l y  
p r e d f r m h o t h T h f i r t p a m

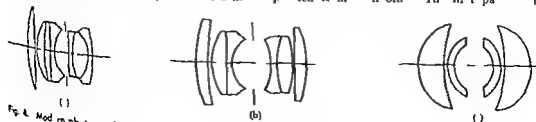


Fig 4 Mod m p h i g p h i ( ) S o (b) B t ( ) T p g



**Cemented lenses** Consider a compound lens made of two or more simple thin lenses cemented together. Let the power of the  $k$ th simple lens be  $\phi$  and its Abbe value  $v$  (see CHROMATIC ABERRATION). The difference between the powers of the combination for wavelengths corresponding to  $C$  and  $F$  is

$$I_F - I_C = I/N = \Sigma \phi / v$$

where  $N$  may be considered to be the effective  $v$  value of the combination. The  $v$  values of optical glasses vary between 25 and 70 with the  $v$  value of fluorite being slightly larger ( $v = 95.1$ ). By using compound lenses effective values of  $N$  can be obtained outside this range. Color correction is achieved as  $N$  becomes infinite so that  $\Phi_F - \Phi_C = 0$ . A lens so corrected is called an achromat. In optical design it is sometimes desirable to have negative values of  $N$  to balance the positive values of the rest of the system containing collecting lenses. Such a lens is said to be hyperchromatic. A cemented lens corrected for more than two colors is said to be apochromatic. A lens corrected for all colors of a sizable wavelength range is called a superchromatic lens. See OPTICAL MATERIALS.

### LENS SYSTEMS

Optical systems may be divided into four classes: telescopes, oculars (eyepieces), photographic objectives and enlarging lenses. See EYEPIECE, MICROSCOPE, OPTICAL.

**Telescope systems** A lens system consisting of two positive systems combined so that the back focal point of the first (the objective) coincides with the front focal point of the second (the ocular) is called a telescope. Parallel entering rays leave the system as parallel rays. The magnification is equal to the ratio of the focal length of the first system to that of the second.

If the second lens has a positive power, the telescope is called a terrestrial or Keplerian telescope and the separation of the two parts is equal to the sum of the focal lengths.

If the second lens is negative the system is called a Galilean telescope and the separation of the two parts is the difference of the absolute focal lengths. The Galilean telescope has the advantage of shortness (a shorter system enables a larger field to be corrected) but the Keplerian telescope has a real intermediate image which can be used for introducing a reticle or a scale into the intermediate plane.

Both objective and ocular systems are in general corrected for certain specific aberration while the other aberrations are balanced between the two systems. See TELESCOPE, TELESCOPE ASTRONOMICAL.

**Photographic objectives** A photographic objective images a distant object onto a photographic plate or film. See PHOTOGRAPHY.

The amount of light reaching the light sensitive layer depends on the aperture of the optical system which is equivalent to the ratio of the lens diameter to the focal length. Its reciprocal is called the  $f$  number. The smaller the  $f$  number, the more light strikes the film. In a well corrected lens (corrected for aperture and asymmetry errors) the  $f$  number cannot be smaller than 0.5.

The larger the aperture (the smaller the  $f$  number) the less is the scene luminance required to expose the film adequately. Therefore, if pictures of objects in dim light are desired, the  $f$  number must be small. On the other hand, for a lens of given focal length, the depth of field is proportional to the aperture.

Since the exposure time is the same for the center as for the edge of the field, it is desirable for as much light to get to the edge as to the center; that is, the photographic lens should have little vignetting.

The camera lens can be considered as an eye looking at an object (or its image) with the diaphragm corresponding to the eye pupil. The Gaussian image of the diaphragm in the object (image) space is called the entrance (exit) pupil. The angle under which the object (image) is seen from the entrance (exit) pupil is called the object (image) field angle. For most photographic lenses the entrance and exit pupils are close to the respective nodal points; for such lenses the object and the image field angles are equal.

In general, photographic objectives with large fields have small apertures; those with large apertures have small fields. The construction of the two types of systems is quite different. One can say in general that the larger the aperture, the more complex the lens system must be.

There exist cameras (so called pinhole cameras) that do not contain lenses. The image is then produced by optical projection. The aperture in this case should be limited to  $f/22$ .

**Other types of lenses** A single meniscus lens with its concave side toward the object and with its stop in front at its optical center gives good

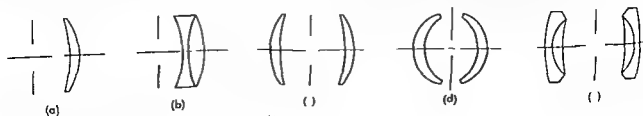


Fig. 2 Older photographic lenses: (a) Meniscus, (b) Simple achromat, (c) Periscope, (d) Hyperwide angle, (e) Symmetrical achromat.

## Leo

The Lion, in a t o n m y is a m a g i f i c t e r d a c a l  
constellati o n appear g d r n g p r n g and early  
summer It is th e f i f t h s i g n of the Z d i a c Leo i  
J d f i e d a d bears a c l e r e e m b l a n c e to th  
c r u t u r e at r e p e s e n t . The head s t i l l e d by  
g r o p o l i s m c a l l e d th S c k l e Th f i s t m a g n i  
t u d i n a r R e g u l s ( l i t t l e R l e r ) f o r m s the handle  
f the k l Th e e s t a t o the e a t f o r m i n g a  
m i l l i n a g l c n t i t e t h L i n s h u n c h e s with  
t b g h t s t a r D e b o l ( t l o f the l i )  
m g b l t a r A c i a t e d with th c o n t e l l a  
b o n a r e the f a m L e o d s h w o f m e t o r s  
b h a n b e s e e n r d a n g f o m L e o i n N o e m b  
l c h e a r and appear g m e c i a l l y b r i l l a n t at  
m r a l f b o u t 33 y e S e C O N S T E L L A T I O N  
M i r r o r . [ c s r ]

## Leopard

A l a g e o r F l u s p a d u s of the f m l y  
F i d f u d v e r m o s t f A f a e t e r n E r o p  
a d c r o s A f r o m the B l a c k S e n t S b e  
Th l e o p d a k i l l e d l m b and f a o f o  
e s t e d r e a f t e l i m i g a t e e t a m l h t  
P y Th e a r e a l d i f f e n t u b p e s : c l d  
g t h b l k l p d r p a t h o f o u t h n M a  
h

Leopard a e m e w h a t s m a l l e r th l n  
t i g e r s , and h e n o t e b l y l g r t a i l Th y a t t a i



Th l p d F l p d l g h t 57 ( F o m P M  
D c e d C i f N t l H s t y C 1883)

a t o t a l l e n g t h f 7 f t 3 f t of w h i c h i s t a i l H u n t  
e c n i d e r t h e m m o r e d a n g r o u t h a n a n y o t h e r  
c t T h e y r e n o c t r n a l p y n g p r i m r i l y u p o n  
a n t e l p e b b o n w i l d p a n d s i m l a r a n m a l  
T h e y a l o e t a l l d o m t i c i m l b t r a r e l y w i l l  
a t t a c k a n d k i l l h u m a n T h e m t c o m m n f r m i n  
s t e r n A f i c a a n d d j a c e t A a m r e d d i s h b r o w n  
a n d m a l e d w i t h p e n t o e t t e s o r d a k p o t i n a  
e g u l r p t e r n S e e C A R N I V O R A L I O N T I G E R  
[ J O B ]

## Lepadomorpha

A s u b o r d e f t h Th a c i c a T h e s e b a r n a c l e s h a v e  
p e d u n c l a n d a c a p t u l u m w h c h i u u l l y p r o  
t e c t e d b y c a l a r e o p l a t e s C a d a l f u r c a d f i l a  
m e n t r y p p e d a g e o f t n a r e p n t T h e e  
u t a c e u a e s t h r h e r m a p h d t i c o r t h e s  
m a y b s e p r a t e

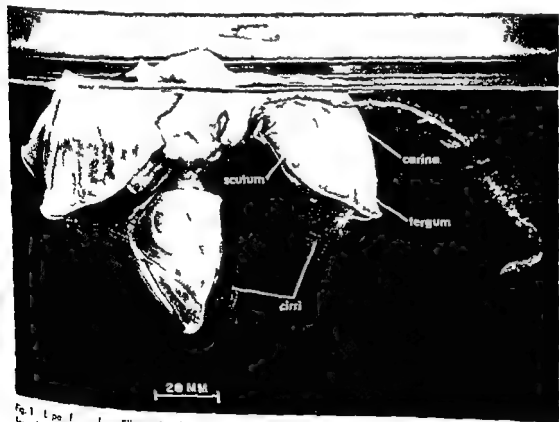


Fig. 1 L e p a d o m o r p h a . E l l i d S o l d R o o t b m b l t p p l y e d q t b y o c y ( p h t o  
f o r m e d b y t h b o r n i f t h b i c t ( V I I g p h b y D P W I )  
b o t t o m d t h l k i m w h f t h c y p d m d

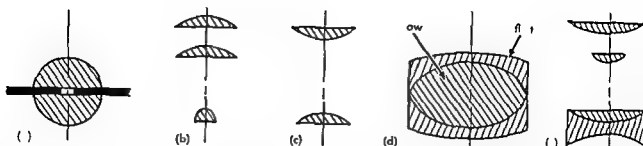


Fig 5 Some typical magnifiers (a) Sphere with equatorial diaphragm (b) c) Planoconvex lens combinations

(d) Steinheil triple applanat (e) Chevalier type with long working distance

mented and the second usually has a small air space. For a relatively large aperture it is excellently corrected for aperture and asymmetry errors as well as for chromatic errors and distortion. It is frequently used as a portrait lens and as a projection lens because of its sharp central definition. Astigmatism can be balanced but not corrected.

For a discussion of lenses with variable magnification see ZOOM LENSES. See also GHOST IMAGE OPTICAL.

**Enlarger lenses and magnifiers.** The basic type of enlarger lens is a holosymmetric system consisting of two systems of which one is symmetrical with the first system except that all the data are multiplied by the enlarging factor  $m$ . When the object is in the focus of the first system the combination is free from all lateral errors even before correction. A magnifier in optics is a lens that enables an object to be viewed so that it appears larger than its natural size.

The magnifying power is usually given as equal to one quarter of the power of the lens expressed in diopters. See DIOPTRIC MAGNIFICATION.

Magnifying lenses of low power are called reading glasses. A simple planoconvex lens in which the principal rays are corrected for astigmatism for a position of the eye at a distance of 1 in. is well suited for this purpose, although low power magnifiers are often made commercially with biconvex lenses. A system called a verant consists of two lenses corrected for color astigmatism and distortion. It is designed for stereoscopic vision at low magnification.

For higher magnifications many forms of magnifiers exist. One of the basic designs has the form of a full sphere with a diaphragm at the center as shown in Fig 5a. The sphere may be solid or it may be filled with a refracting liquid. When it is solid the diaphragm may be formed by a deep groove around the equator. Combinations of thin planoconvex lenses as shown in Figs 5b and c are much used for moderate power. Better correction can be attained in the applanatic magnifier of C. A. Steinheil in which a biconvex crown lens is cemented between a pair of flint lenses (Fig 5d).

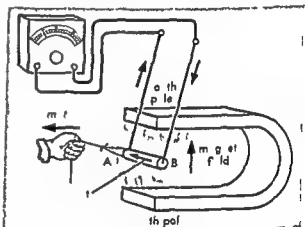
A design by C. Chevalier (Fig 5e) aims for a large object distance. It consists of an achromatic negative lens combined with a distant collecting front lens. A magnifying power of up to 10X with an

object distance up to 3 in. can be attained. [N.Y.]

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## Lenz's law

A law of electromagnetism which states that when ever there is an induced electromotive force (emf) in a conductor it is always in such a direction that the current it would produce would oppose the change which causes the induced emf. If the change is the motion of a conductor through a magnetic field as in the illustration the induced current must be in such a direction as to produce a force oppos-



Induced emf in moving conductor. Direction of current induced in wire AB indicated by the arrows. (From M. W. White, N. V. M. G. and R. L. Weber, *Practical Physics*, 2d ed., McGraw-Hill, 1955).

ing the motion. If the change causing the emf is a change of flux threading a coil, the induced current must produce a flux in such a direction as to oppose the change. That is, if the change is an increase of flux, the flux due to the induced current must be opposite in direction to the increasing flux. If the change is a decrease in flux, the induced current must produce flux in the same direction as the decreasing flux.

Lenz's law is a form of the law of conservation of energy. Since it states that a change cannot propagate itself. See CONSERVATION OF ENERGY. [N.Y.C.]  
TION ELECTROMAGNETIC [K.V.M.]



Fig. 2 Shg on with th h d m ts. (F m  
1 W h A l i o d c l i t h S t d y f f o l p l i  
L w C k k 1940)

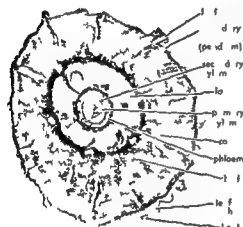


Fig. 2 L p d o d d s l Y  
the L c u f m e d b y b e a k w f r i l t  
na U m M H l q R h h l l p d o  
d e n d r o n e l g d S t M m l e S N  
w o r d d o f 17 1892)

a b t z e d b t m that b e r r a e d d a  
m o d h p e d m u n d o f t u c a l l e d l e a f u h n  
t o b u c h t h e l e a s e t t s h d T h o r d h a d a  
l d d d i b t a d s t d f r m L a t e D  
t h e g h P r m i n t m W i l k w g r a  
L p d o d d L e p d p h l o S g l l a a B t h  
o d S i g m r i a L p d s t b u s L p d c a  
p o n M u d m i a a n d M a p n  
V e g e t a t i v e m o r p h o l o g y T h a r b r e c e t g n e a  
r i l g t r e s ( F g 1 ) m e a t t a i n n g h g h t i n  
r e e f 1 0 0 f t . T h e b s a l p r i e s t e d f d  
r o n t m t m f t h z o m e l k s c e l l e d  
S g m r i a k l u g a l y h r i z o n t a l b h e s  
a t b u f t h t k T h e s e s w h h b o e  
a m l d r o o t ( F g 2 ) h a d t e m l k e  
r o o t e S g m a n a s e s w e r b o r n b y L p  
d o d d L p d p h l B t h o d a n S g l  
l e a a d p n b l y t h

The tall straight trunks usually branched by un-  
equal d hot my i t a m w n o f s c c e s s i v e l y  
smaller br nche (Fig 1) *Sigillaria* howe-  
er b nched ly slightly or not at all Anatom-  
ically the stem (Fig 3) contained a l d or tubular  
c n t l strand of primary xylem urrou ded by  
p r m r y p h l e m L e f t r a c e b r n c h f r m t h e s r  
f a c e f t h e e n t r a l t a n d a d a r e f r e q u e n t l a c  
c o m p a i e d b y t w p a r e n c h y m a t u p a r i c h n  
t r a n d o f t k n o w f u c t n I n m a y s p e c i e s  
o n d a y x y l m a n d p h l o e m w e r e p o d u c e d T h e  
i s f r e q u e n t l y a w i d e p e r i p h e a l z e o f e l o n g a t e d  
t h i k w a l l e d c e l l s p r o d u c e d b y m e r i s t e m a t i v  
i t y w i t h i n t h e r t e x T h i s s e c o n d r y r i e o r  
p e r i d e r m i s t h e m a j o r u p p i n g t i s i n t h e  
a r b o r e s c e n t p e c e s n e t h e e c n d a r y w o o d a c  
c o n t f r o n l y a b o u t a n t e n t h t o o f i f t h o f t h e  
t a l b u l k o f t h e t e m T h e m e r c e t i l u s s e s m  
f r e q u e n t l y l a c k i n g S e e M E R I S T E M L A T E R A L  
S T E L E

Leaf cushions are a prominent feature of the  
genus (Fig 4 Sa) The e f m w h i c h l e a v e s h a v  
f a l l e e s u a l l y c h a r a c t e r i z e d b y a l e a f c a r a  
l i g l e p t a d i n L p d o d d r o a v r t i c l  
r i d g b e a t h t h e l e a f a r a l l d t h e k e e l ( F i g  
5 a ) A b c i o n f t h e l f i L e p d p h l o s a n d  
S b l p d p h l s s d n t o c r f l u s h w i t h t h e u r  
f a e o f t h e c u h o n b u t f r o m a n o t w d t e n  
n a l l d t h e l e a f b a s ( F i g 4 ) T h e l o n g

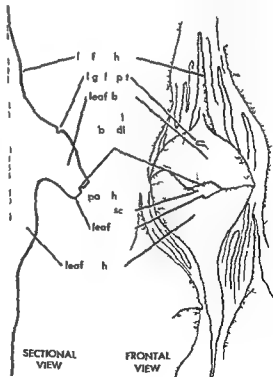


Fig 4 S b l p d p h l o r o l f h s  
i l d f t l w U F m C A H p p g A  
t h i f h f p f p l  
a b t h y p d p R o y S E d b g h  
B l 66(1) P u l 1956)



Th lpid de dral n g e a were mmon n  
habitat of the ten = P n yl n an c l  
swamps nd f d c m m ly as fo il in l  
hill and in h le a i ted w th c l eams Se  
COAL BALLS PALEOBOTANY [CBB]  
Bibliography C. A. Arnold *A Int od t n to*  
*Paleobotany* 1947 J. H. W. L. *A I t duction*  
t th St dy J. F. lPla t 2d ed 1953

# Lepidolite

A mmer l f ari bl mposition th t i also  
call d lithium mic a d lith o te k (Li Al) s  
(% Al )O (FOH)<sub>3</sub> R b d m Rb d  
cesium, Cs may r pl p t m k m ll  
an unit of M Mg Fe(II) nd Fe(III) rmally  
are present a d the OH/F i ar o nder  
ad Plith n t a s l d lth m rich a d  
thus aluminum poor a ty f lepidolite

Lepid l u m m m l m t lu  
l m str ct ally mplex gr ntic pegm t te  
com ally in pl me t i C mmo  
ae qu tz, lea l dute lkal be yl d  
alkali turn l Lepid l s a comme cial  
source lth m, m m ly used d ily lth  
m g l es d oth am p ducts l mportant  
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## MORPHOLOGY

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# DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES

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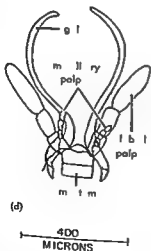
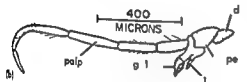
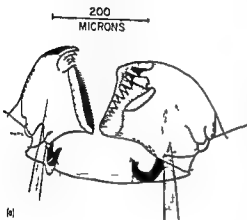


Fig. 2 Mouthparts f d l r H m ( ) M d b l  
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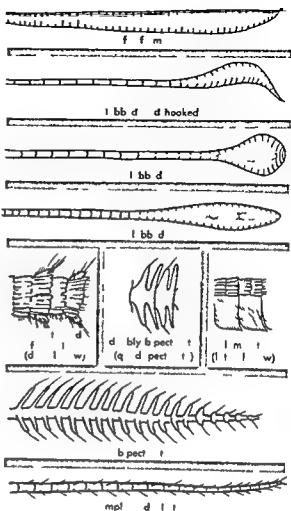


Fig 3 Typ f l p d p t

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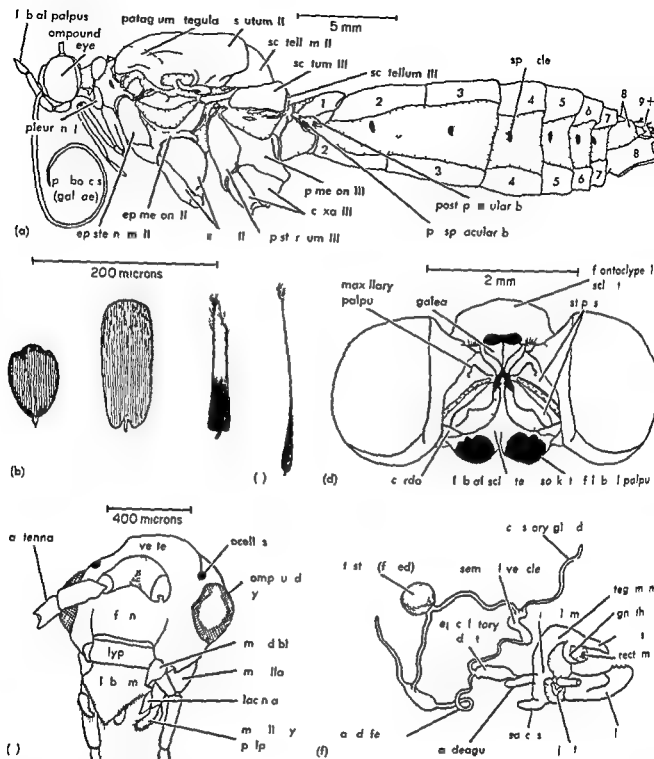


Fig 1 Adipose anatomy (a) Lateral view of *Danau pteippus* L (Nymphalid e) with wings and pterothoracic legs removed (b) Unspecialized scales (c) Adipose (d) Ventral view of head of

*D. plexippus* L. (e) Frontal view of head of *Epimortya* (Micropterygidae) (f) Malpighian system (dorsal aspect)

when it is present. In some of the higher moths, skippers, and butterflies the humeral angle of the hindwing is expanded and strengthened by one or more humeral veins. In the *c* group, the frenulum is usually lost and the wings are coordinated by the overlapping lobe.

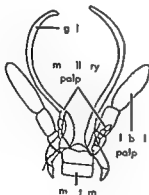
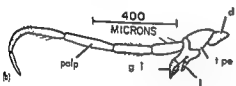
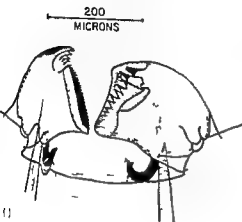
The scales are very variable in form. Generally they are flat thin sclerotized sack with striated outer surface. They have a basal pedicel which fit a socket in the wing membrane. In the males some

cale the androconia have feathered tips which serve for the dissemination of scents. The spectral spectrum of color as seen in the Lepidoptera can be grouped into two categories: pigmentary and structural color. Pigmentary colors result from pigments which are present in the scale. Structural colors are the result of either fine surface ridge on the scale or layers within the cuticle which interfere with or diffract the light. The structural colors are generally metallic or iridescent.

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# DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES

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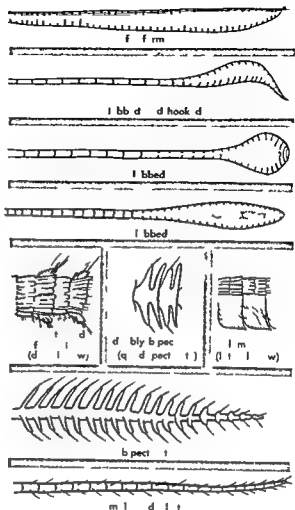


Fig 3 Typ f l p d p t a t

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Fig 4 Internal anatomy of *D pleippus* L (Nymphalidae) tracheal system and most of musculature omitted (a) Ad lt female (b) Larval male

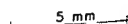


Fig 5 (a) Wings of male *Acrolophus popea* ell Clemens (Tineidae) with veins labeled (b) W g venation of *Epimartyia* (M cropterygidae) and *Neptuliclyssaefol ella* Chambers (Neptulidae) (c) W gs of *Epiploca* (Nymphalidae) C costa; Sc subcosta; R radial; R radial sector M media C cubitus IV 2V 3V vannal veins H humeral vein subscript refers to branches (R<sub>2</sub> is second branch distal) (d) Pothoclergia of *Papilio* (Pilionidae)

(d)



Table 1 Important families of Lepidoptera

Classification	Common name	Distribution	No. of species
<b>Suborder Homoneura</b>			
Micropterygidae	Micropterygids	Holarctic and Australia	3 (3)
Friscranidae	Friscranids	Holarctic	1 (0)
Mnesarchaeidae	Mnesarchaeids	New Zealand	
Hepialidae	Swift or ghost moths	Cosmopolitan	18 (00)
<b>Suborder Heteroneura</b>			
Incurvaridae	Yucca moths and relatives	Cosmopolitan	60
Nepticulidae	Serpentine leaf miners	Cosmopolitan	
Cossidae	Goat or carpenter moths	Cosmopolitan	45
Aegeridae	Clawed moths	Cosmopolitan	10
Coleophoridae	Caterpillars	Cosmopolitan	110 (900)
Ceciliidae	Ceciliids	Cosmopolitan	590 (3800)
Gracilidae	Gracilids	Cosmopolitan	3
Heliodinidae	Heliodinids	Cosmopolitan	1
Oecophoridae	Oecophorids	Cosmopolitan largely Australian	3 (3000)
Ornecodidae	Many plume moths	Cosmopolitan	1
Psychidae	Bagworm	Cosmopolitan	
Tineidae	Clothes moths and relatives	Cosmopolitan	130 (00)
Yponomeutidae	Firmine moths	Cosmopolitan	6 (800)
Olethreutidae	Olethreutids	Cosmopolitan	15 (00)
Tortricidae	Tortricid	Cosmopolitan	10 (100)
Thyrididae	Window winged moths	Tropical	10
Pyralidae	Pyralids snout moth	Cosmopolitan	113 (1000)
Platycampidae	Plume moths	Cosmopolitan	130
Eulepididae	Slur moths	Cosmopolitan	50 (900)
Mallopygidae	Flannel moths	Mostly American a few African	11
Zygaenidae	Foresters and burnets	Palaearctic African and Indo-Australian	
Castniidae	Castnids	Neotropical and Indo-Australian	6
Drepanidae	Hooktips	Holarctic	
Geometridae	Measuring worms loopers canker worms carpet weavers and pupae	Cosmopolitan	100 (1000)
Uranidae	Uranids	Tropical	
Sphingidae	Sphinx hawk or hummingbird moths	Cosmopolitan	106 (1000)
Laocampidae	Teletocerapillars lappet moths	Cosmopolitan except New Zealand mainly tropical	30 (1400)
Saturniidae	Giant silkworms	Cosmopolitan	0
Bombycidae	Silkworm and allies	Tropical	1 (introduced)
Arctiidae	Tiger moth	Cosmopolitan	00 (3600)
Lymantriidae	Tussock moth	Largely African and Indo-Malayan but with important Holarctic species	
Notodontidae	Ironment pupa moths	Cosmopolitan except New Zealand	10
Noctuidae	Noctuid owl under wings moths	Cosmopolitan	700 (10000)
Hesperiidae	Skippers sage worms	Cosmopolitan	40 (3000)
Papilionidae	Swallowtail butterflies	Cosmopolitan	6000
Pieridae	Whitesulfurs ora tips	Cosmopolitan	61 (1000)
Nymphalidae	Four footed butterflies	Cosmopolitan	11 (000)
Lythidae	Snout butterfly	Cosmopolitan	1 (1)
Lycaenidae	Blues coppers larvae streak metal marks	Cosmopolitan	138 (300)

The first figure is the number of described species in North America north of Mexico. The second figure is the number of species in the world. The third figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States. The fourth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States and Mexico. The fifth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, and Central America. The sixth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, and the Caribbean. The seventh figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, and South America. The eighth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, and Australia. The ninth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, and New Zealand. The tenth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, and the Pacific Islands. The eleventh figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, and the Indian Ocean. The twelfth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, and the Atlantic Ocean. The thirteenth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Arctic Ocean. The fourteenth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, and the Antarctic Ocean. The fifteenth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, the Antarctic Ocean, and the Southern Ocean. The sixteenth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, the Antarctic Ocean, the Southern Ocean, and the Northern Ocean. The seventeenth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, the Antarctic Ocean, the Southern Ocean, the Northern Ocean, and the Eastern Ocean. The eighteenth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, the Antarctic Ocean, the Southern Ocean, the Northern Ocean, the Eastern Ocean, and the Western Ocean. The nineteenth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, the Antarctic Ocean, the Southern Ocean, the Northern Ocean, the Eastern Ocean, the Western Ocean, and the Southern Ocean. The twentieth figure is the number of species in the world when present in the United States, Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean, South America, Australia, New Zealand, the Pacific Islands, the Indian Ocean, the Atlantic Ocean, the Arctic Ocean, the Antarctic Ocean, the Southern Ocean, the Northern Ocean, the Eastern Ocean, the Western Ocean, the Southern Ocean, and the Northern Ocean.

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SATURNIOIDEA

SPHINGOIDEA

NOCTUOIDEA

HESPERIOIDEA

PAPILIONOIDEA

ZYGAENOIDEA



PYRALIDOIDEA

COSSOIDEA

CASINOIDEA

TORTRICOIDEA

1 cm

TNEOIDEA

HEPTICOIDEA



INCURVARIOIDEA

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ONEURA

HOMONEURA



HEPATOIDEA

EROCANIDEA

MICROPTERYGOIDEA

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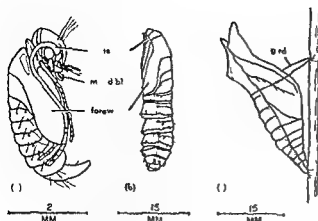


Fig 9 Pupae (a) *Mnemo caucyca* Walsh (Etiocranidae) (b) *Sthenopsis thule* Strecker (Hepalidae) (c) *Papilio tolus* (Papilionidae)

ing toothed functional mandibles and lacking even the most rudimentary proboscis. The galea of the maxilla is short and the adults feed on pollen. The larvae which feed on mosses are unusual in having eight pairs of abdominal prolegs.

It has been suggested by various authorities that these moths are actually terrestrial Trichoptera or that they should be placed in a separate order Zeugloptera. Characters of the wing venation trace the presence of broad well developed scales with numerous ridges and other features indicate that these insects are best included in the Lepidoptera.

**Superfamily Etiocranoidea** In this group of tiny moths the mandibles are greatly reduced and un toothed and the galeae of the maxillae form an abbreviated proboscis. Three families the Etiocranidae, Neopseustidae and Mnearchaeidae have been recognized within the superfamily. The leaf mining larva is essentially apodous (lacks legs). The adults reportedly do not feed. The females have a piercing ovipositor.

**Superfamily Hepialoidea** These are medium to large sized moths which possess rudimentary mouthparts. The larvae are borers. The rapid flying adults are mostly crepuscular thus the common name swift or ghost moths. The only family of importance is the Hepialidae which has about 200 species. The Nearctic species belong to the genera *Hepialus* and *Sthenopsis*. See ZOOGEOGRAPHY.

**Suborder Heteroneura (Frenatae)** Fore and hindwings are markedly different in shape and venation. Usually they are connected by a frenulum and retinaculum. Mouthparts are haustellate (formed for sucking) or rarely are vestigial. Adults with functional mouthparts feed on nectar of flowers, juices of rotten fruits and other liquids. The female usually has two genital openings. Pupa are usually obiect.

**Superfamily Incurvarioidae** One family the Incurvariidae comprises the superfamily. The wings are covered with microscopic spines or aculeae and the females have a single genital opening as in the Homoneura. The venation is almost complete. The basal segment of the antenna is not enlarged to

form an eye cap. The larvae are leaf tender or needle miners. In the subfamily Incurvariinae the larva is first a miner and then a cane bearer. The pupa is not completely obiect.

This superfamily includes the famous yucca moth *Tegeticula* (= *Pronuba*) *yuccasella* Riley. This small white moth has an obligatory mutualistic relationship with the yucca plant. The female gathers pollen with its specially adapted mouthparts and fertilizes the yucca flower. The eggs are laid in the plant ovary by means of a piercing ovipositor. The larvae eat some of the developing seeds.

**Superfamily Nepticuloidea** One family is included the Nepticulidae. These tiny moths have wing pines and the females have a single genital opening but they differ from the Incurvarioidae in having a reduced venation and a large eye cap at the base of the antenna. The larvae with the exception of some gall making species of the genus *Ectoedemia* are miners in leaf bark and rarely in fruits. Many species of the genus *Nepticula* have a wing expanse in the 3 to 5 mm range being the smallest insects in the order.

**Superfamily Cossoidae** One family the Cossidae commonly called the carpenter or goat moth. These are heavy bodied moths with the abdomen extending well beyond the hindwings. Mouthparts are rudimentary except for labial palpi. The median vein (M) in Fig 5) stem extends to the base of the wing and is forked within the discal cell. The larvae are borers often tunneling in the hard wood of tree trunks. *Prionoxystus robiniae* Peck is the best known American species. It is very destructive to a large variety of deciduous trees.

**Superfamily Tineoidea** There are 16-39 families the number varies with the author. This is a very large group of uncertain composition. These moths are of small size usually with well developed maxillary palpi. The labial palpi have a slender pointed third segment. In the hindwing the ulcus and radius (Sc + R) are free or are joined to the cell by a bar. Venation may be reduced and the wings may be divided into plumes.

**Aegeriidae** is the family commonly called the clearwing moths because of the large transparent scaleless areas on the wings. The Sc + R<sub>1</sub> vein in the hindwing is apparently absent but actually it is concealed in a costal fold. Many species are excellent mimics of wasps. They are diurnal and often brightly colored. Many of the boring larvae are economic pests. Among these are the currant borer *Ramusa tipuliformis* Clerck, the peachtree borer *Sanninoidea exitiosa* Say and the Japanese vine borer *M. litia satyriniformis* Hulnér.

**Coleophoridae** are small narrow winged moths whose larvae are case bearers carrying "shell" made out of silk and bits of leaf. The adults lack maxillary palpi.

**Gelechiidae** is a large family of minute to small moths usually with rounded or rarely pointed forewings and triangular often pointed hindwings. Venation is variable and sometime reduced.

to R radial ect r and med a M of the hind wing are stalked or cl together at the b e The larva mol d seed feede mine s bers gall : kers d fol g feed The f mly includ a number f ec nom c lly impo t t insects The lagoon s grain moth, S t t o g a cere l l a O h i e r n f i s g r t both in the f i l d and i s t The k boll orm P c t n o p h o a g s y p i l l a Saund an extremely imp t t w l d w de pest of t m

Gr s l rud e are small moths with l af mining larvae Both pa f w g a c l a c o l a t e d d l y l y n g e d Th y g larv e a c f i t t d and have bl d l k mand bles with wha h they la h the b f the f, s u k i n p the ex d i n g j u c e s The f l l y g r o w n l a r v a e q u i t d f i t b e t g n m f m appear e a d feeding on pare h y m a e t h e r u a l f m i n e e x t e r n a l l y The b e t k n w n p e e r s a r e G c i f and L t h o c o l l e t u s

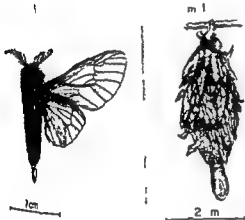


Fig. 10 Thy d p t r y p h m f m H w r t h (Tychidae)

F l o d d i s a m l l f m l y o f t i n y m t h t a k e a r e o l t n b i l l t y c l r d A n m b o f g r o w c h a S i a t h m p d a d E u c l e m n t a p e c i e s w h e l a r v t t c k d s O r o p h d a e m l l t m d t l y m l l e t h s t h a m b o f b l e t h p t e n m t h e n a r e o f t h a n t a T h l a r v e r e d h b s s o m f e e d e b l l e d l a e s t h m g r o p e d t o d T h e g n a B e a b e a r H l o c a d d t h e f i n p l c e d m s e p a r t f m l y t h e B i a s b i d e c H o l a f M r k a s m p t t p e d t o t h l a m e c t l n d a O r o r o d e a m l l f m l y w h e d l t h a e t h w g d d e d n t s x f t h l k e p l m s S m e a b o r p l c t h m i n t h P y a l d i d e a w t h t h e P u m p t i d e b u t t h e m j n t y b e l t h t h e r e m a n e c b e t w e e t h e t f a m i l e s a a o f m e m g e n

l l d are the bagworm Th m l e a b e r y a r o g b o d e d w i f t f l y g m o t h s w t h e d m o u t h p r i s T h e y r e l g w t h w g x

p a n s e o f a b o u t 25 m m f r t h e t u e o i d s T h e f m a l e s a r e d e g e n e a t e w l l g l e a n d o f t e n s l u g l k e T h e y l i v e c o n c e a l e d n b g h p d c a e s m d e b y t h e c a t e r p i l l m T h e b t k n o w n N o r t h A m e c n r e p e s e n t a t m s T h y r i d p t e y x e p h e m e r e f o m H a r t h I n t h p i t h e l a r v a f a t e n s t h e b a g t o t w g a n d p u p i w t h t T h e e r m i f o r m f e m l m g f m t h p p a a d m m t o t h e b o t t m f t h b m w h e r h i f e r t i l i z e d T h i s c o m p l i s h e d f r o m t h e o u t s i d e b y t h e h i g h l y s p e c i a l i z e d e x t r a b l g e n i t a l i o f t h m l T h e f m a l e d e p o s i t s h e e g g s i n t h e b a g t h e n d r o p s t o t h g r d n d d

T i e d a i f m l y f m l m o t h s w h i c h u s u a l l y h a s a n e r e c t b t l g v t t m t h e h e a d T h m o b o s c i e d u c e d o r v t l n d t h m a x i l l a r y p l p m u s u a l l y w e l l d e v e l o p e d T h n t n i s g e r a l l y p m t m w t h m s t e i n s b e i g p e e n t a d u n s t a l k e d M t l r v e s a p o p h a g o u a n d m n y e c a e b e a r e r T h b t k w n s p e c i e s t h e c l t h m o t h w h c h i n c l u d e t h m k i n g l t h e s m o t h T i n a p l l l L t h w b b i n g l t h m t h T m l a b i s s l l l a H u m m e l n d t h c p e t m o t h T c h p h t p e t z e l l L T h e s e i m p r t t p s t s w h o l r v m d e u w o o l a n d t h a n i m a l p d c t T h e t h r e p c e s a l l h a e w i g e p f l e s t h n n c h

Y p n o m e t u d h e t e r o g n e a s s r i m e n t f a m a l l t n b g t t l y c l d m o t h w h h u l l y h s m o o t h h e d d e d d o a b e t c e l l S p f m l y T o t c d T h e s m a l l w d e w e d m o t h b l g t t w f m l e s t h O l e t h u t d e a d t h f o t r i d a T h e m x i l l r y p a l p i a c e t g l a b t n d t h t h d e g m n t f t h e l b l p a l p i s s h o r t n d u s u a l l y b u t I t h e h d w S + R o n t g u o w i t h t h c e l l n d t h d g e f m R T h e h f g o f t h w g a a r l w a y h r e t h a n t h w d t h f t h e w i m

O l e t h r u t d i s a f a m i l y o f m t h s w h o h n d w g u l l y h a f r i n g e f l i n g h a i r n t h e p p e r d l o n g t h b s a l p t o f t h m b u t T h l a r v m a r e g e n l l y b i d d a f e d e r a d l e m o l d l a e s f l m w b b e d t e t h m d f r t T h e f m l y c o n s i s t s a n u m b o f g l s a l l y a n d s i r b l p e i P a r a m u s m n g t h s e s t h o d l n g m o t h C p p a p o m l l L w h c h i v e r y s p t o f p p l e d t h f u t s T h l g e g u L a p e y a c n t a n t h i n t r e t g m c a j m p b e a m t h L l t t n s W e s t w d T h e l t m e m t s f t h l a r v f t h m t h e e s p b l f o r t h e t u n o f t h b m w h l t h y s h b t

T o r t d e a f m l y w h c h g n l l y l m t h f g e f l g h m i n g t h e b i t u h t e r s t f t h O l t h t a d a T h m u e b u d w o r m C h i s t n f m f a c l m i p b b l y t h e m t m p r t t j o t r t d l n m y p l c p e l l y E t r n C a d i t h a d f o l a t e d t o f f e f t

S p f m l y P y l d d T h e s e m o t h a r m d e t l v m l l t m e d m e d l g l e g g d d l e n d b o d e d S + R f t h h d w n g i l m s a l w y u t e d f c d b l e d t n e w t h R



The maxillary palpi are usually well developed

Pyrallidae is the second largest family of moths. They are small and medium sized with a wing expanse of 20–35 mm being not uncommon. The labial palpi are well developed and the broad vannal regions in the hindwings often have three vannal veins. The legs are usually long and slender.

The subfamily Crambinae the snout moths contains small forms which are common in marshes and grasslands. The labial palpi are quite long and porrect giving the adults a beaked appearance.

The small subfamily Galleriinae contains the bee moth or wax worm *Galleria mellonella* L. which lives in beehives. The larvae feed on the wax at night and destroy the combs. The species occurs throughout the range of the honeybee.

The subfamily Nymphulinae is notable because some of the included species are aquatic. Some larvae develop tracheal gills; others do not. In some species the pupa is enclosed in a cocoon below the surface of the water and the adult emerges from the water.

The subfamily Phycitinae is a large group of moths in which the frenulum of the female is a simple spine rather than a bundle of bristles. The larvae have very diverse habits being leaf rollers, case bearers, borers, stored products pests and so on. One species is predacious on coccids. The Indian meal moth *Plodia interpunctella* Hubner is described by A. D. Imms as one of the most important economic insects known. The species is cosmopolitan feeding on a wide variety of stored products especially cereals. Another extremely important pest in this group is the Mediterranean flour moth *Ephestia kuehniella* Zeller which infests cereals throughout the world.

In contrast to these harmful species the Phycitinae also contains *Cactoblastus cactorum* Berg which was imported into Australia from South America to help control *Opuntia* cactus which had spread rapidly to cause the ruin of millions of acres of pasture. The success of this program is an outstanding example of biological control.

The subfamily Pyralidinae reaches its richest development in the tropics. *Pyralis farinalis* L. the meal moth is a cosmopolitan pest of stored products.

The subfamily Pyraustinae is another very large group. It contains relatively large moths many extending 30 mm or more in which vein II of the forewings is unstalked from the cell. To this subfamily belong the infamous European corn borer *Pyrausta nubilalis* Hubner, the grape leaf folder *Desmia funerals* Hubner and other economically important species.

The subfamily Schoeniniinae includes the genus *Acentropus* the most completely aquatic Lepidoptera. One form of female adult never emerges from the water; it uses its reduced wings for swimming.

Pterophoridae the family known as the plume moth. The wings are divided into featherlike plumes of which there are usually two in the forewing and three in the hindwing and in the time id

Orneodidae. The moths lack maxillary palpi have slender bodies and long legs. The larvae feed exposed or are borers.

**Superfamily Zygaenoidea** These moderately small to medium sized moths have complete venation rudimentary palpi and usually a rudimentary proboscis. The wings are broad with short fringes. In the hindwing  $Sc + R_1$  separate from  $R_2$  beyond the cell. The larvae are short in length or sluglike and are exposed feeders.

Eucleidae are the slug caterpillars a small family of heavy bodied hairy moths the larvae short and sluglike with a large head concealed beneath the thorax. The prolegs have been replaced by many ventral suckers. The best known Nearctic form is the saddleback caterpillar *Sabine stimulea* Clemens which has urticating hairs.

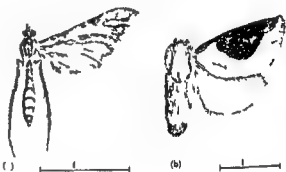


Fig. 11 (a) *Platypilia ardida* Rley (Pterophoridae) (b) *Poloma desbadia* Hubner (Eucleidae)

Zygaenidae is a diverse family of small often brightly colored moths in the subfamily Himationpterinae which is primarily African. The hindwings are very narrow with long rilled tails and the body and wings are covered by long hairs. The larvae of this subfamily live within termite colonies and the newly emerged moth escapes from the nests under the attacks of the termites. The hairs pull free readily and the tails are expendable.

**Superfamily Castniidea** One family the Castniidae is included in this group. They are large diurnal butterflylike moths with clubbed antennae, upright eggs and boring larvae. A proboscis may be either present or absent. The moths are considered by some to be distantly related to the Pieridae but the resemblances may very well lead to convergence. They are found in the Neotropics and Indo Australian regions.

**Superfamily Cometridae** These are small to large moths with reduced maxillary palpi and a tympanal organ at the base of the abdomen. In the forewing the base of the media  $M_1$  is usually above the apex of the discal cell  $M_2$  and  $M_3$  and the vannal veins  $2V$  and  $3V$  are at the same level as the first fork. The frenulum may be present or absent.

Cometridae include the nonuriting worm looper and cankerworm which emerge as a very large family of small to medium sized moths with slender bodies and relatively broad wings. They

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f They a fmed m s to ery la ge he vy  
bold m th w th e t mely pid flight The  
ad n m tly p ecula r n c t r n l but  
b r g m a s e d r n l The a ten a e c th ck ned  
nd ha po ted ape Th p b i w ll  
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th f r w g The f n ul m s p e e t l th h d  
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will b v a t g e n drem sp all l t.  
n b e t th nd f th c l l Th larvae e  
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a k we ooon at the u fa d t l g p b a  
r m f m n a project ng e emb l

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l v n l o s i Old W rld de th h d ph n  
l l n ar p L Of ec mic importa c  
West r n H m. phe s she t m t h r n worm  
P l t as (=P o t p c l) g q m latu  
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web n sts Tho e f *U ame ic na* Fabr us e a  
m m m n sight tr e a d sh ub n the e tern  
l l ted Stat

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f s V sk n of A t al re ch an exp n i the fe  
m le f mor th 10 i They ha e the la ge t  
w i gar s i the l ect

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*Hylaph ap m thea* Dr ry and the ynth a S m i  
cy th D ury

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nia g l F br a d the imp ial m th *Eacle*  
mp ial s D y m the mo t f m l members of  
th s b fam ly Cather m a

I th ubfamily H mil n th b ck moth  
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the c m m r l lkworm *B mbyx m r l* L. The l r  
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M l e t the b m f M x th m t that f M

(except in the Notodontidae) and 2V and 3V do not form a basal fork

Arctidae is a relatively large family of strikingly colored heavy bodied moths the tiger moths The larvae are generally very hairy and feed either exposed or in webs Larval hairs are incorporated into the silken cocoon The best known arctid is probably the banded woolly bear caterpillar *Isia isa bella* J.E. Smith There is a widespread misconception that the banding pattern of this larva predicts the severity of the coming winter

Lymantridae (=Liparidae) are the tussock moths which are of medium size The antennae of the males are broadly pectinate The end of the female abdomen has a tuft of hairs which is deposited on top of the eggs The hairy larvae usually have prominent toothbrush tufts The most familiar species is the infamous European gypsy moth *Porthetria dispar* L. which along with the destructive brown tail moth *Nygmia phaeorrhoea* Donovan was imported into New England in the last half of the nineteenth century

Notodontidae are commonly called prominents or puss moths They are distinguished from the rest of the Noctuoidea by the apparently three branched cubitus The larvae are external feeders and the pupa is formed in a cell in the ground or in a loose cocoon on the surface The Nearctic *Datana minuscula* Drury (the yellow necked caterpillar) and *Schizura concinna* J.E. Smith (the red humped caterpillar) are pests on apples and other trees

Noctuidae (=Phalaenidae) are the owl moths an extremely large family of mostly dull colored medium sized moths The vast majority of moths which are attracted to lights belongs to this family As exemplified by the genus *Catocala* the forewings are almost always dull and cryptically colored They cover the hindwings which may or may not be strikingly colored when the insect is at rest The larvae are mostly exposed foliage feeders but a few such as *Papaipema* are borers Some of those of the genus *Eublemma* prey on caterpillars one being an important enemy of the commercially valuable lac insect Pupation is usually in the ground

The family includes many agricultural pests The cutworms *Euxoa* and *Peridroma* attack a large variety of plants as does the army worm *Leucania unipunctata* Haworth The former derive their name from the habit of cutting off shoots at the surface of the soil without consuming them the latter from the fact that they often appear in vast numbers An exceedingly important pest *Heliothis armigera* Hübner is variously known as the corn earworm cotton bollworm and tomato fruitworm Its diet may be surmised from its name

Superfamily Hesperioidea There is one rather large family the Hesperidae The skipper is small to moderately large heavily bodied mostly diurnal in habit with a clubbed antenna which is bent curved or reflexed at the tip Forelegs are fully developed and bear an epiphysis The forewing have all emerging separately from the cell rarely there is one light stalk The frenu-

lum is absent except in the male of *Euschemon* The larvae have a prominent constriction or neck behind the head and often live in leave drawn together by silk Those of the giant skipper *Megathymus* are borers in yucca and agave The pupa is usually enclosed in a slight cocoon

The name skipper refers to the rapid erratic flight of most species One familiar American species is the silver spotted skipper *Eparcyus clarus* Cramer another is the sachem *Atalopedes campestris* Boisduval The Australian *Euschemon sticticus* MacLeay is placed in a separate subfamily largely because of the presence of a frenulum in the male In Mexico the caterpillar of the *Megathymus* are fried and canned for human consumption

Superfamily Papilionoidea These butterflies are small to large diurnal in habit with clubbed antennae that are rounded at the tip and not bent or reflexed The forewings always have two or more veins which are stalked The frenulum is absent The larvae have no constriction behind the head and are usually exposed feeders The pupa is naked with the exception of *Parnassius* and relative and is often suspended by caudal hooks the cremaster Pupa are either inverted or held in an upright position by a silken girdle

Papilionidae is a family of which swallowtails and parnassians are typical common forms These are the only butterflies with fully developed forelegs bearing an epiphysis They are also unique in having the cervical sclerites joined beneath the neck The hindwings have only one well developed vannal vein except in the anomalous Mexican *Baronia brevicornis* Salvin The larvae have an ever visible forked organ on the prothorax the metathorax This organ dispenses a disagreeable odor and presumably functions as a defensive mechanism The pupa is girdled In the boreal genus *Parnassius* and some other members of the family a horny pouch or sphragis is found This is secreted by the male during copulation and covers the genital opening of the impregnated female The commonest genera *Papilio* *Graphium* *Rattus* and *Parides* (= *Atrophaneura*) all contain large and attractive species many of which possess the characteristic tails which give the family its name The birdwing butterfly *Ornithoptera* and *Troides* are among the largest and most beautiful species In North America the eastern tiger swallowtail *Papilio glaucus* L. has dichromatic female one form being black and yellow striped like the male and the other being entirely dark brown or black the latter presumably mimicking the protected *Arctiochia* swallowtail *Rattus philenor* L The larva of the orange dog *Papilio cresphontes* Cramer is sometimes injurious to citrus

Pieridae is a family of which common members are white sulfur and orange tip These butterflies are unique in lacking the prespiracular lobe at the base of the abdomen The forelegs are completely developed in both sexes but lack the epiphysis The laral claws are bifid A great many



Table 2 Important Injurious Lepidoptera (cont)

Name	Dmg by lve
<b>Olethreutidae</b>	
Collegm th	La va bo st p ples d ne
Carpoc p p monlla	tl r f ts m st impo t nt
	p st fapples
Orntal p l motl	F d on f ts a l tw gs f
Lasp yre ia mol sla	p ches plum etc
<b>Tortricidae</b>	
Spruc l lw m Ch	Def l tr f a t a e s of
ula p f nif r a	co fous e est
Ugly n st t l l f	F lo l e a d futs of
rll m t C e	lpl a dothe f m straw
spp T l t spp	be ry sh d tr m or ame tal
	pl nts t
<b>Pyralidae</b>	
Oie t l bo	Very d str ct to r c i A a
Chil impl	
Be m th Gall a	Dest y comba ngle ted
mello ll	bel v s
I i n mel l th	W deap l pl ery impor
Plod t rpu tlla	t nt pest of d d fr t d
	m m l products import d
	f m E op
M d tr n n flo	I fest flou t d g in
m th Eph st	c l
k hn ll	
Gap l f f l d r	Som times n mport nt
D m a f ne li	d l l t f s ap e
<b>Geometridae</b>	
Sp g nk w m	D f lat fr it d sh d t ces
p l i n i	s th ky ra p g en
f l c nk rw m	k w m o w nt m s
tl ph la p m t a	p p fll nk w rm an
	egg
<b>Sphingidae</b>	
Tom t h r wo m	Large l r e em t
Phl geth lu	p p nals of m to d
q u m l l	t b e lso f lo th
lla o ho worm P	sol n ceous pla ts
estus	
<b>Lasocampidae</b>	
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M l o s n a spp	h l d cl dices
<b>Arctidae</b>	
F ll w t w m	F d w l n ty of f t
Hyph nt i unea	h l nlf t tes
<b>Lymantridae</b>	
Eu pe n gypsy moth	Impo t nt def l t off est
P rhl d pa	h l nd f t t ces Nw
	Englanl
<b>Brown t l moth</b>	S m l t gypsy m th
Nygma ph eo hoe	
<b>Noctuidae</b>	
Cutwo m E ca pp	N m pe es l m g
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	tl g es
<b>Coleworm cotton</b>	F eel gly mpo t nt cosmo-
ball m t m t	polt n prest l k g m y
f tw rm tol coo	lt ated pl ts
b lw rm H l th	
a m g a	
<b>Perididae</b>	
C b bag t t t fies	Pests f v r n l t v ted
P m pp espec lly	er f r s
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lycaenid *Strymon melinus* Hubner has at times been an important pest of hops

# BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF LEPIDOPTERA

The Lepidoptera are a group of insects on which much biological research remains to be done. A great deal is still unknown about the genetic physiology and ecology of this group. Moreover butterflies and moths have proved useful as experimental animals in genetical research.

**Ecology and distribution.** The variation in habits is discussed under the different families. Lepidoptera of all stages are subject to the attack of a large number of predators including birds, mammals, lizards, frogs, and spiders. They also must be wary of rapacious insects such as dragonflies, mantids, phymatid pentatomids, and vespid. Some wasps (Sphecidae) paralyze caterpillars oviposit in them and place them in peculiarly constructed cells. Others (Ichneumonidae) place their eggs in the caterpillar without paralyzing them. In either case the caterpillars serve as food for the growing wasp larvae. In some cases some chalcids oviposit in the eggs of Lepidoptera.

One mite *Myrmonyssus phalaenodectes* Treat infests the tympanum of a variety of moths and another *Otopheidomenus zalesis* Treat is restricted as far as is known to the genus *Zile*. Predators of the genera *Atemnus*, *Stenonethus*, and *Ipocheridium* have been found on adults of various species. Lepidoptera are also subject to viral, bacterial, protozoan, and fungal infection.

The Lepidoptera penetrate almost every corner of the globe, with the major exception of Antarctica. Butterflies of the genus *Holoria* have been taken at Alert on northern Ellesmere Island about 400 miles from the North Pole. Arctic and alpine tundra areas normally support a lepidopteran fauna which although relatively poor in species is rich in numbers. After rain, desert areas are often alive with butterflies and moths. Tropical areas are largely far the richest in species. One of the strangest habitats occupied by a lepidopteran is the hair of the neotropical three-toed sloth where the sloth moth *Brachyopoda hahneli* Spuler a pyralid passes its entire life cycle presumably feeding on algae which grow in the hair. The following outline indicates some of the habitats of larval Lepidoptera.

- Plant association terrestrial
  - Feeding exposed on foliage, flowers, or plant lice
  - Feeding on foliage in wet or cave
  - Leaf and needle mining
  - Living under bark
  - Boring in stem, root, fruit, or seed
  - In oil seedling on roots
  - Living in or feeding on fungi, moss, lichens, or other small moist excreta and fern
  - Living in dried plant products such as cereal flour, dried fruit, refuse, hay, straw, etc.

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 1. beekeeping  
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## Lepidosauria

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Table 2 Important Injurious Lepidoptera (cont)

N m	Dam g   y   va
<b>Olethreutidae</b>	
Codl g moth C p ap pom n ll	La bo es = pples and som ther fru ts in st mpo tant pest of apples
O i tal p h motl Laspeyr a m l l	Feed o f ts an l tw gs of p ch s plum et
<b>Tortricidae</b>	
Spru h dwo m Cho- lon r f m f an	Defol at r of v at a eas of co fe ou f est
Ugly et tot d l f oll rs t Ca oec app T l uz app	Fed on l a es nd f ts of ppl nd other f ts t w be y h det ees o n mental pla s te
<b>Pyridae</b>	
O i tlr bo Chil nple	Very d tr t eto rce n As a
B m th Gll a m ll n ll	Dest oys mbs n eglected beeh e
I l n me l m th Plod a inl p l ll	W desp l nd ry por tant pest of d ed f ta d m l p oducts imported f m Eu op
M d t e n flou moth Eph t k hn lla	Inf st flou to ed gr c e l
C p leff ld D m ju ls	Som times n mpo t t d fl at of g s s
<b>Geometridae</b>	
Sp g ca k wo m P l t r t f ll k w m Atsophl p m ls	D fl t f t nd h d t ees o th k ye rs i g a k worm o w n rs p p f ll e k w rm a ss
<b>Sphingidae</b>	
Tom to ho nw rm Phl g th tus q q m a l l s t lacco ho w m P s z l u s	La g l r e most con p cu pests of t m to nd t b s al f do th sol n eo spl ta
<b>Lasioleptidae</b>	
T t cat p ll m M l e m pp	S r d folators of f l h de nio ch dt
<b>Arctidae</b>	
F ll webw m H yph n l t n	F d wd a ty ff est, sh de n l f t tr ca
<b>Lymantriidae</b>	
E rope n kyp y m th P th l s d u p a	Impo t t def l t f f t h l nd fru t t es N w Engl n
Il own t l moth N ygm ph eor hoe	S m l r to gypsy m th
<b>Noctuidae</b>	
C tw rms, E lroa pp P idroma spp t	N n pec s dam g m ny roppl nt
Arny w m Le un punct t	V jes t m d u l y s i d nce i eg d m y s t does g t l m g to co n a l oth p sses
Co n earw m cotto bollworm tom to ll tw rm t ba co bulw rm H l oth s m g a	F ceed gly mpo t nt cosmo- polt n pest t k g m y cult ted pl ts
<b>Perididae</b>	
C bb g butt fl rs, P u pp espec lly P rapa U ted St tes	Pests f v r l l ted cruc f rs
Alf l f b t fly Col s r yth me	Import nt pest f l f l f so th west n U ted States

lycaenid *Strymon melinus* Hubner has at time been an important pest of hops

# BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF LEPIDOPTERA

The Lepidoptera are a group of insects on which much biological research remains to be done. A great deal is still unknown about the genetic physiology and ecology of this group. Moreover, butterflies and moths have proved useful experimental animals in genetical research.

**Ecology and distribution.** The variation in larval habits is diversified under the different families. Lepidoptera of all stages are subject to the attack of a large number of predators including birds, mammals, lizards, frogs, and spiders. They are also must be wary of rapacious insects such as dragonflies, mantids, phymatids, pentatomids, and vespid. Some wasps (*Sphecidae*) paralyze caterpillars oviposit in them and place them in peculiarly constructed cells. Others (brachonids and ichneumonids) place their eggs in the caterpillar without paralyzing them. In either case the caterpillars serve as food for the growing wasp larvae in which they live. Some chalcids oviposit in the eggs of Lepidoptera.

One mite, *Myrmonyssus phalaenodectes* Treat infests the tympanum of a variety of moths and another, *Otopheidomenis zaleski* Treat, is restricted as far as is known to the genus *Zale*. Predators of the genera *Atemnus*, *Stenonethus*, and *Apocheridum* have been found on adults of various species. Lepidoptera are also subject to viral and bacterial, protozoan, and fungal infection.

The Lepidoptera penetrate almost every corner of the globe with the major exception of Antarctica. Butterflies of the genus *Polaria* have been taken at Alert on northern Ellesmere Island about 400 miles from the North Pole. Arctic and alpine tundra areas normally support a lepidopteran fauna which although relatively poor in species is rich in numbers. After rain, desert ants are often alive with butterflies and moths. Tropical areas are by far the richest in species. One of the strange habits occupied by a lepidopteran is the hair of the neotropical three-toed sloth, where the sloth moth *Batyra podicola hahneli* Spuler, a pyralid, passes its entire life cycle presumably feeding on algae which grow in the hair. The following outline indicates some of the habits of larval lepidoptera.

1. Plant associations terrestrial
  - a. Feeding exposed on foliage, flowers, or plants
  - b. Feeding on foliage in web or case
  - c. Leaf and needle mining
  - d. Living under bark
  - e. Boring in stem, root, fruit, or seeds
  - f. In soil, feeding on roots
  - g. Boring in or feeding on fungi, moss, lichens, and fern
  - h. Living in dried plant products such as cereals, flour, dried fruit, refuse, herbarium specimens

Locato th voc l s ect

l bech m

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## Lepidosauria

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t y p a l d a p d k l l a d u b t h e c o d n t t e t h T h e  
g r p m s r l a t e d t t h e o d n t s b u t t h e d a t a  
r m a d g a t e T h e y a e k n w n l r g e l y f r o m  
S t h A f r a n P e r m n t o l E o u c h a n s i v d  
d r g M i d d l P e r m a n t E c n e t i m e E x a m p l e s  
Y u n g a n d C h m p s o s u s S e T h r e c o  
n o t i a

Order Rhynchocephalia The r h y n h o c p h l a n s  
o b k b a d s w e c l z a d l k e d a p i d p t l s w i t h  
a c r d o n t t e e t h n d m p h o e l a r t r e b r a e T h e  
p m x l a r y b o n e t y p c a l l y w s b e k l i k e R h y n  
h o p h a l a n s l e d s t r e s t r i l h a b i t a t s e c e p t  
f o r a f e w m a f r m s o f u n e t a f i t y T h y  
l e d f r m m h u s i t h e E a r l y T r a i a n d  
f l h d b i f l y t h o u g h t t h w l d n t h e T r i a  
s M m b e s i f t h e g r o p s u r v a e t o d a y w i t h t  
t l c h g t t h e m o d r a T u t a r S p h n o d o n  
p e t u m o f N e w Z a l n d E x a m p l e s a r e H m o  
s u s a d S p h n d S e e R H Y N C H O C E P H A L I A



Table 2 Important Injurious Lepidoptera (cont)

N me	D m g i y l
<b>Olethreutidae</b>	
Coll g moth C poc ps p mo ella	L bo ppl nd som other fru t m st impo tant pest of pples
Ont l p ch moth Laspey s m l t	Feeds n f m l tw gs of p ches plum etc
<b>Tortricidae</b>	
Spruce bulbwo m Cho- usto ra fum f	Defol t f t f
Ugly t to t d l af ollers to Ca oec pp T f iz spp	F don l l f ts of apples nd oth f ts t w be y sh let ees o n m nt l plnt tc
<b>Pyralidae</b>	
Orient l ce bore Chil m pl x	Very dest u t to A
Bee m tl C ll m ll n ll	D t oy combs in n gl cted l h
I dan m l m th Plod l p nel ll	W lesp l l ery impo tant p t of l l f t d mal pol t mp tel fo Fu p l f t flow t ed g l
Med t ne n fl u moth Fphesl ku hn ll	Som t m s an s po t t l f l t fg p
G nel f flier D m f al	
<b>Geometridae</b>	
Sp g c k rwo m Pl r b ent f ll c nk w m Alsoph l pom t	D fl tef t d sh l t tb ky rs ap g k rw mo w teta p p fl l k w m n egg
<b>Sphingidae</b>	
Tom t l w m Phl g th l q q m c l l us toba oh w m P ext	La g l r most c n sp o pest f tom to l tl eco lo f lo th sol eo pl nts
<b>Lasocampidae</b>	
T nt t pill rs M l m pp	E o s d f l t f f t h l lo l l tr es
<b>Arctidae</b>	
Fl w bworm Hyph l e ne	Feed on w l ty of f eat, ol l d f t tr es
<b>Lymantriidae</b>	
Eu p m gypsy m th Po th l a d spa	Impo ta t l f l t f f t l l f f t t ees N w F gl d Sml to gypsy m th
<b>Bow t l m th</b> Nyg i ph ro hoes	
<b>Noctuidae</b>	
Cutw F oa pp Pe drom pp t Arm y w m Le u p l l	N m pec es l m g n y crop pl nt V est m l y l l ce p l m y rs t l oesg t l m g to c m r l th gr sees
Co n rwo m cott hollow m t m t fr lw m t l co bl w rm l l l ths m g ra	I eed gly impo t t cosmo- pol t n pest t k i g m y c l t ted l l t
<b>Peridae</b>	
C l bage l t t fies P r s pp espec lly P pa l U ted St tra Al f l l t t fly Col r y th m	Pests f s l t ted cru f ra Impo t t pest f l f l i so thwest U l ted St tra

lycaenid *Strymon melinus* Hubner has at times been an important pest of hops

# BIOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF LEPIDOPTERA

The Lepidoptera are a group of insects on which much biological research remains to be done. A great deal is still unknown about the genetic physiology and ecology of this group. Moreover butterflies and moths have proved useful as experimental animals in genetical research.

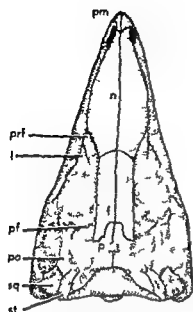
**Ecology and distribution.** The variation in larval habits is discussed under the different families. Lepidoptera of all stages are subject to the attack of a large number of predators including birds, mammals, lizard, frog and spider. They also must be wary of rapacious insects such as dragon flies, mantids, phymatid, pentatomid, aphid and vespid. Some wasps (Sphecidae) paralyze caterpillars oviposit in them and place them in peculiarly constructed cells. Others (Ichneumonidae) place their eggs in the caterpillars without paralyzing them. In either case the caterpillars serve as food for the growing wasp larvae inside them. Some chalcids oviposit in the eggs of Lepidoptera.

One mite *Myrmonyssus phalaenodectes* Treat infests the tympanum of a variety of moths and another *Otopheidomenis alvates* Treat is restricted as far as is known to the genus *Zale*. Pseudoscorpions of the genera *Stenurus* *Stenonithus* and *Apocheiridium* have been found on adults of various species. Lepidoptera are also subject to viral, bacterial, protozoan and fungal infection.

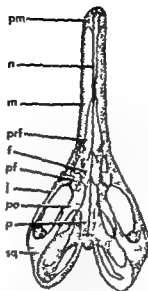
The Lepidoptera penetrate almost every corner of the globe with the major exception of Antarctica. Butterflies of the genus *Boloria* have been taken at Alert on northern Ellesmere Island at 400 miles from the North Pole. Arctic and alpine tundra areas normally support a lepidopteran fauna which although relatively poor in species is rich in number. After rain desert areas are often alive with butterflies and moths. Tropical areas are by far the richest in species. One of the strangest habitats occupied by a lepidopteran is the hair of the neotropical three-toed sloth where the moth *Brachy podicola hahneli* Spuler spends its entire life cycle pre-empting feeding on algae which grow in the hair. The following outline indicates some of the habitats of larval Lepidoptera.

1. Plant association, terrestrial
  - a. Feeding exposed on foliage, flower or plant lice
  - b. Feeding on foliage in winter case
  - c. Leaf and needle mining
  - d. Living under bark
  - e. Boring in stem, root or cell
  - f. In oil feeding root
  - g. Boring in or feeding in fungus, moss, liverwort, clubmoss, lichens or alga
  - h. Living in dried plant product, hair case
  - i. al. Flour dried fruit refuse, dried animal products

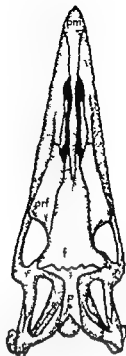




(a)



(b)



(c)

Lepidosaurian reptiles showing dorsal view of skulls  
 p parietal po postorbital sq squamosal f frontal  
 pf postfrontal prf prefrontal l jugal m maxilla  
 n nasal pm premaxilla st supratemporal l lacrimal  
 (a) *Yongania* pm p m l e two-arched reptile from the  
 Upper Permian of South Africa length about 2½ in  
 (after R. Broom in M. S. Watson and E. C. Olson)

(b) *Champsosaurus* a Late Cretaceous and early Tertiary amphibious form length about 13½ in (after B. Brown)  
 (c) *Tylosaurus* a mosasaur length about 38 in (after S. W. Williston) (From A. S. Romer Vertebrate Paleontology University of Chicago 2 ed 1945)

**Order Squamata** This order consists of two suborders (1) the Lacertilia or lizards (including mosasaurs) which have a single upper temporal fenestra and (2) the Ophidia or snakes which have lost both temporal arches. See **SQUAMATA**

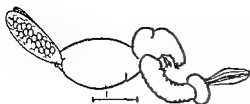
**Suborder Lacertilia** In the lizards the lower jaw is united at midline the teeth are acrodont to pleurodont and the vertebrae are amphiocoelous (geckos) to procoelous. Osteoderms frequently are present in the skin. The group is apparently derived from rhynchocephalians and includes modern lizards (two being poisonous *Heloderma suspectum* and *H. horridum*) and extinct marine mosasaurs (Cretaceous). They range from Jurassic to Recent.

**Suborder Serpentes (Ophidia)** The snakes are elongate limbless derivatives of monitorlike lizards showing adaptation to burrowing swimming or brush dwelling without pectoral or pelvic girdles except for remnants of the latter in primitive forms. The lower jaw is united by a ligament the quadrate is movable there is no parietal foramen and vertebrae are numerous and procoelous. The teeth are acrodont and recurved. The maxillary teeth of several groups have grooves or enclosed channels for poison. There are arboreal terrestrial aquatic and marine forms. They range from the Late Cretaceous (*Dinilysia* South America) to Recent. Included in the suborder are blind ophidrid worm snakes vipers pit vipers elapids and sea snakes.

## Lepospondyli

A term used to characterize amphibian groups in which the vertebral centra basically spoon shaped are formed by ossification directly around the notochord in contrast to the apsidospondylous structure seen in the Labyrinthodontia where the centra ossify in blocks of cartilage formed well outside the notochord. The term Lepospondyli meaning husk vertebra has been variously used sometimes including only a restricted number of Paleozoic forms but more recently utilized as a subclade name to include all amphibians whose vertebrae are formed in this general fashion. See **AMPHIBIA FOSSILS**.

In the Paleozoic the larger amphibians were labyrinthodonts but small lepospondyls appear to have been very abundant as water dwellers particularly in the coal swamp. The lepospondyls are commonly grouped to form three orders: the Nectridia, the Aistopoda and the Microsauria. The modern orders Urodela and Anura have a basically lepospondylous structure; they are probably descended from one of the Paleozoic lepospondylous orders (Microsauria) and hence may be included in the Lepospondyli in a broad sense. Except for the Devonian Ichthyopterygid the oldest known fossil amphibians are lepospondylous and the group is thought by some to have been derived independently from fish and not from AISTOPODA CYMNOPHIDIA MICROSAURIA NECTRIDIA.



Lernaeopod (1) F m l S m col thym H (K  
lar) based R G y B h h f h w l C p p d  
vol. 3 R y S ty 1933) (b) M l e S m l thy  
ae (K sal 1 f R G y B h h f h w l  
C p e p o d 1 3 R y S o c ty 1933) (1) F -sw m  
g larv f P l g i (W l) (1) f C B  
W l o Th p p d f th W d H l g o  
M e m o r h s e t B H U S N i l M m 158 509-531  
1932)

The free-swimming larva, which is the first  
repeated to emerge from the isae. Ete  
all the embryos the hal mus l rva of Cal g d  
b i t e r n a l l y t a n q u e n h i g p f r m e d  
f r o a l t b e r g a t n g i t h f c h e a d a d i m  
a n g n a l a b o e t h e p h a g u The larva  
v a b l f o l y h t p i d m u s t f i d h t a p  
d l A t b l h t m a y b y o o f p e h p  
v e r a l p e c e s f i h t d e g e e f h s t p a r t e  
p e c i f i t y a u l l y o t p e c e d A d h e r g t  
p p r p i t e t w i t h h o o k l k e a p p e d a g e s t h  
l a r v m k a n u n d t h i t t i s t h e l e d  
t h e v e r t e d a n d b e c m e s e m b e d d e d t h  
r o u n d e d a t h e t s u g e n t T h t b e  
e t e m p o r m t h d f i t h m t d e g e t e s  
w h e n t h l r v m t m r p h i n t h v e r m f r m  
p g (J l t c)

Attachment and nutrition Pe m t a t t l l  
m o u t a c m p l h e d n t w w a y s L e r n a e o p o d d e  
m a b e d t o t h w l l o f t h f i s h e s g a l l h m b  
b i t r o g l m o d i f i e d s e c d m a l l T h e p  
p e r p e a m l g t d a g e l k e a p p e  
a n e b e g n o r m a l e g m e t t T h e c d f  
e d t h p e x b i t t o l k w l l g b l l l  
b r o w n h o s t t u I S p h y r i d t h e h e a d a d  
p u r l t h t h r a x b e c m e m b e d d e d t h w i t h  
t g l l h m b r e x t r n l y f t n r t h d  
a l f a S a l m l a l m p a r t a n g l m  
b e a n d t h n d o m h b t f t s h t a d  
t a s p e c t a c y o f l y I b o t h  
f a m i l y t y p l h t s c l d h k k t e a y  
L e r n a e o b o f i h e s

Lernaeopod da appear t f e d n b o d y f l i d f  
t h e h o t T h e y a r e n t e n d e r e d a t t r e a t t f h  
p o p u l a t i o n e c e p t p a l l y u n d e r c o n d i t i o n s f e  
c e i e c r o w d g S e C o r r o n a [ A F ]

B b l o g p h y H G u r n e y B r i t i s h F r e s h w a t e r  
C p e p o d o l 3 R S c i e t y m o n o g r a p h 1933  
C B W i l n T h e c p e p o d f t h W o o d H l e r e g  
o n M a h u e t t B u l l U S A t l W u n 158  
509-531 1932

## Lespedeza

A warm ea on l g m w i t h t ( f i a t e l e a e s m a l l  
p u l p e a h a p d i l l o o m s a d e e d p e r p d  
L e p e d e z a a l l e t o g w n p o r e r s o i l s t h n  
m t f o g e p l a n t

K n l e p e d e z n e a r l y a n n u a l s p e c i s  
g r w e x t e n e l y f m v i r g n t h a K l  
t h e c m m r s t r i a t e a n n u l s p e c g w n  
f t h a s n r t h e r n F l r d a

I t h s p e c i e s a r e e x l l e t f a g a d o l  
s e r v i n g p l t T h y t e o f t e n g r w n w i t h w h e a t o r  
o t h e r m l l g r a s b y o w i n g 25-30 l b o f e e d  
p a c r e a n l t e w t e r e l y p g A f t e r t h e  
g r h r v t d t h l e s p e d e z a p l a n t s c o o n  
t h e o i l c m p l e t e l y f a f l i a p l e t i f u l



L p d (S I C v t S r )

S e r i c e t h p n a l l s p e d e z a o m e w h a t  
d f f i l t t a b l h l t s e d d o t g e r m n a t  
d l y u l s h u l l e d a n d a f i e d a n d t h y o g  
s e d l g e n o t a t h e u a l s l t s  
u l l y s w n a l o n d t h y u n g g w i t h s u e d  
f g a z g h a y

O n s a n d y l t k n o t n m t o d e s e e s  
p e t s o f m t l p d a s R w o a r e t f  
K e a n l e p e d e z a i t n t o m t n m a t o d e s  
h w e S L F C U M E F O R A G E S N E M A T A [ P T ]

## Lethal dose 50

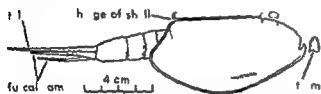
O s p e c i f i c f r m f t h e e f f e t d o m d a n  
f f e c t e d T h l t h i d s o r m e d n l t h l  
d i s l o w r i t e a L D I t i s s d w h t h  
p e s e t a t b g n e t g t e d t h d t h f  
t h m e t a l m l T h m e d l t h a l d e  
t h f e t h e d w h c h f a l t 50° f t h e  
t e s t m l

T h e L D<sub>50</sub> f r t h g i t t e e l y t o  
r b b t 0.5 m l l m p k l o g m o f b d y  
w g h t T h d p t h w t h t p f y g  
t h e L D<sub>50</sub> i t t u h b e e m t o t h p e t e f  
m l t h t e f j t d e w e i g h t f  
t h m l e d F t h t s u b t e s a d f  
f t t f p c i f t u s m g h t b e i m p r t n t

## Leptostraca

A small and unimportant group of Crustacea formerly ranked with the Branchiopoda but now regarded as the most primitive of the Malacostraca. Only a few genera like *Aebania* have survived to the present time but numerous apparently related Paleozoic fossils are known.

The Leptostraca differ from the rest of the higher Crustacea the Eumalacostraca chiefly in having an additional abdominalomite which never bears appendages, a telson bearing two movable articulated prongs, the furcal rami, and an adductor muscle connecting the two halves of the shell or carapace. The telson is a primitive feature and indicate that the Leptostraca diverged from the main Malacostraca stock before the emergence of the typical carideid form. The lamellar thoracic limbs are highly specialized, not primitive. The alliance of the group with the other Malacostraca is amply justified by the agreement in number of the appendages by the sharp distinction between the thoracic and abdominal series and by the position of the genital openings. They are most closely related to the Mysidacea especially in their mode of development. Mysids like *Hemimysis* are now known to have an embryonic caudal furca which is shed at the first molt and a seventh abdominalomite which later fuses more or less completely with the sixth one.



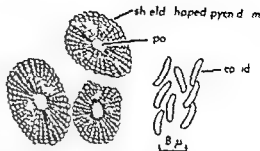
Ceaticostygon Salter, a fossil leptostracan. (After T. R. Jones and D. H. Woodward, *A Monograph of British Palaeozoic Phyllopoda* (Phyllocarida Part I) Palaeontological Society.)

The fossil Leptostraca are the oldest known Malacostraca, ranging from the Cambrian to the Triassic epoch (see illustration). Since they are already well differentiated in the earliest fossiliferous rock, they shed no light on the possible origin of the Malacostraca. See MALACOSTRACA. NEBALICFA PHYLLOCARIDA [100]

Bibliography: T. R. Jones and H. Woodward, *A Monograph of the British Palaeozoic Phyllopoda* (Phyllocarida Part I) 1888-1889; Van Straelen and C. Schmitz, *Crustacea Phyllocarida* (= *Archeostraca*) Fauna Catalogus, part 61, 1933.

## Leptostromataceae

A family of fungi of the order Sphaeropodiales. Although most species are saprophytic, some are fruit tree pathogens. Pycnidia on the fruit bodies containing conidia are black, held hapelcular or of long and slightly asymmetrical opening of the pycnidium is long and tube-like. There are



Pycnidia and conidium of *Leptostromum v. l. p. p.*

80 genera and 345 species recognized. Many of the genera are conidial stages of Hemiphysalae (order Ascomycetes).

The important genera of the Hyaloporaes whose spores are 1-celled and bright (hyaline) are a follow.

*Leptostromum* with approximately 100 species. The pycnidium is typically shieldlike. *L. pomis* causes apple fly peck.

*Leptostroma* with all long and thin pycnidia. *L. pinastri* is a stage of *Lophoderium pinastri* (Ascomycete).

*Melasma* with pycnidia lying in a flattened stroma. *Melasma* species are imperfect stages of *Rhytisma* (Ascomycete).

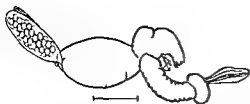
A representative genus of the Hyalodidymae (spores 2-celled and hyaline) is *Gloeospora* (1-celled) similar to *Leptostromum* but the pycnidia of *Gloeospora* are gelatinous. *G. pomigena* causes a blight of apple. See FUNGI IMPERFECTI PLANT DISEASE SPHEROPODIALES [100]

## Lernaeopodoida

A group of Crustaceans known as the fish maggot which are ectoparasites, partially buried in the flesh of marine and fresh water fish. They are characterized by (1) a modified postembryonic development reduced to two or three recognizable stages, (2) a unique free-swimming larva, and (3) failure when sexually mature to show signs of external physical maturity typical of their group. The female larva has distinct segmentation and functional thoracic appendages appear in fish as a comparatively large wormlike, metamorphic, tufted integument. Male (illustration a) are dwarfed and though more distinctly segmented do not exceed female in proportion of development. Using modified head appendages they cling to the female (illustration b) but retain the free locomotory movement.

A succession of R. Curney, Dickinson, and Lernaeopodidae in 1933 and C. H. Wilton account of the free-swimming stage of Sphaerulidae in 1934 the Lernaeopodidae are limited in the account to the families Lernaeopodidae and Sphaerulidae. Characteristic of the Lernaeopodidae families are associated with the fish and the fish families are associated with the fish and the fish families are associated with the fish.

**Life cycle.** The mature larva in the fish body is a 1-celled, wormlike, integumentary, embryonic, and a nauplius stage of development which is associated in the elongated terminal process of the female.



Larva of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)*

The larva of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* is a small, white, segmented larva with a long, curved appendage. It is found in the soil of the host plant, and it is a common pest of the host plant.

Attachment and nutrition. The larva of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* attaches to the host plant and feeds on the plant tissue. It is a common pest of the host plant.

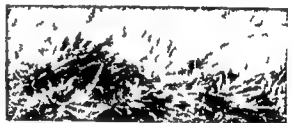
Larvae of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* are found in the soil of the host plant, and they are a common pest of the host plant.

# Lespedeza

A warm season legume with trifoliate leaves. It is a common pest of the host plant.

The larvae of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* are found in the soil of the host plant, and they are a common pest of the host plant.

The larvae of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* are found in the soil of the host plant, and they are a common pest of the host plant.



Larvae of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)*

The larvae of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* are found in the soil of the host plant, and they are a common pest of the host plant.

The larvae of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* are found in the soil of the host plant, and they are a common pest of the host plant.

# Lethal dose 50

The lethal dose of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* is 50 larvae per plant.

The lethal dose of *P. l. g. t. (W. l. C. B. W. l. Th. p. d. f. h. W. d. H. l. g. Mousch. s. e. t. B. l. U. S. N. l. M. m. 158 509-531 1932)* is 50 larvae per plant.

The use of the concept of  $LD_{50}$  is not restricted to toxicology because there are many therapeutic substances such as digitalis which can be assayed more conveniently by their lethal effect than by their therapeutic effect. The same active principle is involved in both effects. See BIOASSAY EFFECTIVE DOSE 50 TOXICOLOGY [CWH]

## Lethal gene

A gene which brings about the death of the organism in which carries it either when homozygous (that is a recessive lethal) or when heterozygous (that is a dominant lethal). Lethal genes constitute a very common class of gene changes and are a reflection of the fact that genes control the processes essential to growth and development of organisms. Dominant lethal genes are rapidly eliminated but the recessives are retained with considerable frequency in natural populations of cross-fertilizing organisms.

Many lethal mutations have proved to be losses of small or large sections of chromosomal material rather than gene changes in the strict sense. When lethal mutation or losses occur the effect is expressed as a failure of growth or as an abnormal course of development leading to the death of the organism carrying them. Most detectable lethal genes are recessive and are expressed only when homozygous. If the processes controlled by a particular gene come early in the developmental sequence the disturbance produced by its loss or mutation is often severe and extensive. If the processes occur later in the sequence the disturbance usually has fewer ramifications. An analysis of the effects of lethal genes provides a valuable means of investigating the complex processes of embryological and later development and in the case of man has practical medical implications as well. In microorganisms the study of lethal biochemical mutants has opened a new era in the unravelling of biosynthetic processes.

The following are examples of lethal mutants: biochemical lethals in the microorganisms *Neurospora* and *Escherichia*; lethal chlorophyll mutants of higher plants. Notch and many others in the fruit fly *Drosophila*. Creeper in fowl. Yellow Brachyury W anemia in the mouse. Gray lethal in the rat. Dexter in cattle. Thalassemia sickle cell anemia and many others in man. See CYTAXATION HUMAN GENETICS [DFP]

**Bibliography** E. Hsd in *Faktoren in ihrer Bedeutung für Erbpathologie und Genphysiologie der Entwicklung* 1935

## Lettuce

A cool season annual (*Lactuca sativa*) of Asian origin and belonging to the plant order Campanulales. Lettuce is grown for its succulent leaves. Four sub-species of this leafy salad crop which are grown are head lettuce (*L. sativa* var. capitata), leaf or curled lettuce (*L. sativa* var. crispata), cos or romaine lettuce (*L. sativa* var. longifolia)

and stem or asparagus lettuce (*L. sativa* var. asparagana). There are two types of head lettuce: butterhead and crisphead or iceberg.

**Propagation** The outdoor crop is propagated by seed usually planted directly in the field but also occasionally planted in greenhouses for later transplanting. Field spacing varies; plants are commonly grown 10-16 in apart in 14-20 in rows. Greenhouse lettuce predominantly leaf and butterhead varieties is transplanted to ground beds with plants placed 7-12 in apart.

Uniformly cool weather promotes maximum yield of high quality lettuce. 55-65 F is optimum. Heading varieties are particularly sensitive to adverse environment. High temperatures prevent heading, encourage seed stalk development and result in bitter flavor and tip burned leaves. However, varieties vary considerably in their resistance to the high temperature effect and to disease. Commercial production of lettuce is extensive in several California and Arizona valleys where mild winter and cool summer climate prevail.

Crisphead or iceberg lettuce is the most widely grown type. Strains of the Great Lakes and Imperial varieties account for most of the acreage. Popular varieties of other types of head lettuce are Butterhead Bibb and White Boston. Grand Rapids or romaine and White Paris are popular types of leaf lettuce.

**Harvesting** The harvesting of heading varieties begins when the heads have become firm enough to satisfy market demands. Usually 60-80 days after planting. Most western grown lettuce is field packed in paperboard cartons and chilled by vacuum cooling.

Leaf lettuce and cos lettuce are harvested when full sized but before the development of seed stalks or a bitter taste. This varies from 40-60 days after planting.

California raises more lettuce than any other state. Arizona and Texas are next in importance. Total annual farm value in the United States is approximately \$123,000,000. See CAMPAULALES VEGETABLE CROPPING [HSC]

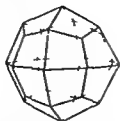
**Diseases of lettuce** Lettuce diseases of greatest importance are caused by fungi and bacteria which disrupt the structure and function of the invaded parts, causing malformation, discoloration and breakdown of tissues. The injuries produced are usually classified as spots, rots, scald, wilt or blight.

The most serious fungus diseases and their causal organisms are: sclerotinia rot (*Sclerotinia sclerotiorum*), gray mold rot (*Botrytis cinerea*), downy mildew (*Bremia lactucae*), anthracnose (*Marssonina panattoniana*) and lettuce rot (*Helicium filum notosa*). Several fungi form important causal leaf spots.

The most serious of the bacterial parasites on lettuce are *Frustraria* and *Pseudomonas*. *Marssonina* both of which cause soft rot. Soft rot is especially damaging when they follow injury and disease. A wet soil wilt and tip burn.







Leucite showing trapezohedral habit of crystal (From C. S. H. Butcher, Jr. ed. *Dana's Manual of Mineralogy*, 16th ed. Wiley, 1952)

netite and other minerals arranged radially or in a concentric manner. Its most noted occurrence is in the rocks of central Italy, particularly as phenocrysts in the lavas of Vesuvius. In the United States it is found in the Leucite Hills, Wyoming, and in the Highwood and Bear Paw Mountains, Montana. Pseudoleucite, a mixture of nepheline, analcime, and orthoclase, is found in pseudomorphs after leucite. See LEUCITE ROCK, PHENOCRYST.

[C. S. H.]

## Leucite rock

Igneous rocks rich in leucite but lacking or poor in alkali feldspar. The types with essential alkali feldspar are classified as phonolites, feldspathoidal syenite, and feldspathoidal monzonite. The group includes an extremely wide assortment both chemically and mineralogically.

The rocks are generally dark colored and aphanitic (not visibly crystalline) types of volcanic origin. They consist principally of pyroxene and leucite and may or may not contain calcic plagioclase or olivine. Types with plagioclase in excess of 10% are called leucite basalt (if olivine is present) and leucite tephrite (if olivine is absent). Types with 10% or less plagioclase are called leucite (if olivine is absent) and olivine leucite or leucite basalt (if olivine is present).

The texture is usually porphyritic with large crystals (phenocrysts) of augite and leucite in a very fine grained or partly glassy matrix. If plagioclase occurs as phenocryst, it is generally labradorite or bytownite and is slightly more calcic than that of the rock matrix. It may be zoned with more calcic core surrounded by more sodic margin. Leucite appears in two generations. As large phenocryst, it forms slightly rounded to octagonal shaped grains with abundant tiny inclusions of glass or other minerals zonally arranged. Small round grains of leucite with tiny glass inclusions occur in the rock matrix. Augite or diopside (sometimes rimmed with aegirine-augite) and aegirine-augite form the mafic phenocryst. Pyroxene of the matrix commonly is soda-rich. Olivine may occur as well formed phenocryst. Other minerals present may include nepheline, sodalite, titite, hornblende, and melilitite. Accessory inclusions include sphene, magnetite, ilmenite, apatite, and perovskite.

Leucite rocks are rare. They occur principally as lava flows and small intrusions (dike and

canic plugs). Well known are the leucite rocks of the Roman province in Italy and the eastern African province. In the Italian area the feldspathoidal lavas are essentially leucite basalt and have developed by differentiation of basaltic magma (rock melt). In the African province the leucite rocks are associated with ultramafic (peridotite) rocks and may have been derived from peridotite material. This may have been accomplished by abstraction of early formed crystals from a peridotite magma or by the mobilization of peridotite by emanations from depth. Assimilation of stone by basaltic magma may help to decrease silica content and promote the formation of leucite instead of potash feldspar. The crystallization of leucite, however, is in large part a function of temperature and water content of the magma. Conditions of formation therefore may strongly influence the formation of leucite rock. See LEUCITE ROCKS, NEPHELINE SYENITE, PETROGRAPHIC MINERALOGY, PHONOIT.

[C. A.]

## Leucosolenida

An order of the subclass Calcareonea in the class Calcarea. The sponges have an acanthiscan structure. A true dermal membrane or cortex does not develop in this order and the pongocoel is filled with choanocytes. One family, the Leucosoleniidae, is recognized. *Leucosolenia* and *Ascyssa* are members of this order. See CALCAREA. See also CALCARONEA.

[W. D.]

## Leukemia

A disease of mammals characterized by a marked increase in the number of white cells (leukocytes) in the circulating blood. An increased number of circulating white cells (leukocytosis) is found in many diseases, especially infectious diseases. In the case of leukemia, the increase usually occurs when the underlying disease process subsides and represents a reaction of the body to the infectious process. In leukemia, on the other hand, the leukocyte is persistent, progresses independently of any obvious cause, and the condition is eventually fatal. During the course of the disease, the white cells are distributed throughout the body and eventually infiltrate many organs.

Normal white cells are produced in the bone marrow of the healthy individual and are the erythrocytes of the circulating blood. In a leukemic patient, the bone marrow is the chief source of production of the numerous circulating white cells. Leukemia may be primarily regarded as a form of cancer of the bone marrow in which leukocyte production is increased. An analogy is drawn in the red cell production in the bone marrow known as polycythemia vera. In this condition, there is an increased rate of production of red cells markedly increasing the normal circulating blood (Fig. 1). See HEMATOLOGY.

**Classification.** The leukemias are usually classified according to the type of cells that are increased in the blood. On the basis of this classification, the leukemias are divided into

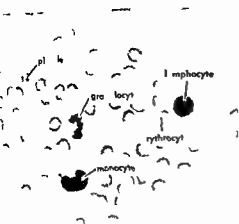


Fig. 1 Normal blood smear showing granulocyte, lymphocyte, monocyte, and clump of platelets

may be met with a total count of less than a year or less than a year. Acute leukemia may also be classified according to the type of cell involved. Lymphocytic leukemia (also called lymphocytic leukemia (Fig. 2a) the predominant cell resembles the granulocyte or polymorph leukocyte of the normal blood. Lymphocytic (or lymphatic) leukemia (Fig. 2b) is characterized by a cell corresponding to the normal lymphocyte and the less common monocyte. Lymphocytic leukemia (Fig. 2c) by the predominance of the monocyte. The different leukemias vary in the degree of clinical manifestations. During the development of the white cell in the bone marrow the appearance of the cell changes. The youngest form is a variety of cell which resembles the polymorphous cell which by continuous mitotic division becomes the predominant blood cell. As the cell matures it becomes more lymphocytic and finally enters the blood. Characteristically, the leukemia (Fig. 2d) the immature cell forms are decreased in the blood at an early stage of the disease. The threshold of the

blood are morphologically immature. In chronic leukemia most of the cells reach a considerable degree of maturity before they are released although some young forms are always present. In studying the nature of leukemia it is possible to predict whether it will follow an acute or a chronic course by analyzing the degree of maturity of the cells in the circulating blood.

Granulocytic leukemia involves the granulocytes or polymorphonuclear cell which is the cell that by their capacity to ingest and destroy bacteria are important in the defense of the body against infection. Lymphocytic leukemia which arises in the later common form of leukemia is a poorly understood form. In many cases the number of them remains normal in the marrow but a small percentage circulate through the body known as lymphoid leukemia. They are normally present in marrow and in lymphocytic leukemia the marrow is overgrown with them in all stages of development. The uncommon monocyctic leukemia involves the monocyte, a motile phagocytic cell that is closely related or identical to the macrophage or wandering cell found in the tissue of the body. Monocyctic leukemia usually follows an acute or subacute course.

Aggregates of diseased cells related to the leukemia are the lymphomas. These are neoplastic invasions of the cells of the lymph nodes and often of the marrow without release of the proliferating cells into the circulating blood. The tumor tends to remain localized for a considerable period of time but eventually involves many parts of the body. Some forms of lymphoma differ from the lymphocytic leukemia only in the absence of the histiocyte cell in the peripheral blood. In fact, the cells of lymphoma will behave to a degree like lymphatic leukemia but they do not enter the blood. Neoplastic proliferation of the granulocytic cells in the marrow with the leukemia of the circulating blood is rare. The leukemia is designated by the pathological term myeloid leukemia. They often represent blast phases of myeloid leukemia and usually follow with some degree of severity.

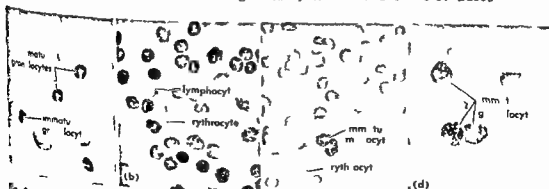


Fig. 2 (a) Blood smear showing lymphocytic leukemia. (b) Blood smear showing monocytic leukemia. (c) Blood smear showing granulocytic leukemia. (d) Blood smear showing myeloid leukemia.





Fig. 1 Normal blood smear showing lymphocyte, monocyte, erythrocyte, platelet.

may be acute, with a total course of less than a year (chronic) lasting more than a year. Acute and chronic leukemia may also be classified according to the type of cell involved. In a leukocyte (leukemia) called myelogenous (Fig. 2a) the predominant cell resembles the granulocyte or polymorph leukocyte of the normal blood. In a lymphatic (or lymphatic) leukemia (Fig. 2b) characterized by the predominance of the normal lymphocyte and the less common monocyte (Fig. 2c) by a cell corresponding to the monocyte. The differential leukemia is their number of leukinemia test.

During the course of development of white cell changes. The young forms of the white cell resemble the pro-metamorphous cell which by continuous mitotic division becomes the parent cell. As the cells mature in the marrow they gradually take the appearance of the mature cell. Finally a cell is released into the blood. Characteristically, in a leukemia (Fig. 2d) the released cell fails to mature and is released into the blood at an early stage of the development. Thus the life span of the cell is

blood are morphologically immature. In chronic leukemia most of the cells are at an advanced degree of maturity before they are released although many forms are always present. In study of granulocytic leukemia it is possible to predict whether it will follow an acute or a chronic course by evaluating the degree of maturity of the cells in the circulating blood.

Granulocytic leukemia involves the granulocyte. The lymphatic leukemia is the cell that by their capacity to ingest and destroy bacteria is so important to the defense of the body against infection. Lymphocytes which are involved in the other common form of leukemia have a poorly understood function. Normally most of them are not formed in the marrow but in the lymphatic system scattered throughout the body known as lymph nodes. However they are normally present in marrow and in lymphocytic leukemia the marrow overruns with them in all stages of development. The uncommon monocyte leukemia involves the monocyte a motile phagocytic cell that is closely related to the macrophage. It is rarely found in the tissues of the body. Monocytic leukemia usually follows an acute or subacute course.

A group of diseases closely related to the leukemia are the lymphomas. These are neoplastic lesions of the cells of the lymph nodes and often of the marrow without the leukemia. The proliferating cells in the circulating blood. The time period of remission is localized for a considerable period of time but eventually relapses may occur in the body. Some forms of lymphoma differ from the lymphatic leukemia only in the absence of the histiocytes from the peripheral blood. In fact, occasionally a lymphoma will hang on to a diagnosis of lymphatic leukemia by clinging to the intact blood. Neoplastic proliferation of the granulocytic cells of the marrow with the leukemia of the circulating blood are called the "leukemias" caused by the paraneoplastic term "leukemic leukemia." They often represent but phases of a disease leukemia and usually follow the same course. See Blood.

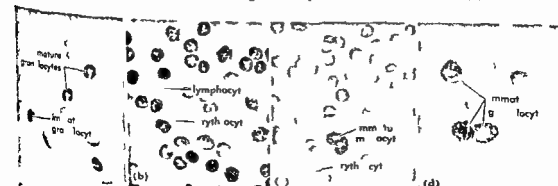


Fig. 2 (a) Blood smear showing granulocytes, (b) Blood smear showing lymphocytes, (c) Blood smear showing monocytes, (d) Blood smear showing immature lymphocytes.

**Incidence and epidemiology** Leukemia has been observed repeatedly in a number of species of domestic animals notably in horses cattle and dogs. Occasional cases have been reported in swine cats goats and rabbits as well as in a few wild animals including elephants and monkeys. Leukemia is recognized in rats mice and guinea pigs and these common laboratory animals serve as convenient subjects for the experimental study of the disease. It would seem that with sufficient observation leukemia would become established as an important disease of all mammals. A leukemia like disease transmitted by an infectious agent occurs in a number of avian species. Little is known about leukemia in reptiles amphibians fish or the invertebrates.

In man the age incidence varies with the particular type of leukemia. The acute leukemias occur chiefly in children and young adults though no age is immune. Chronic granulocytic leukemia becomes increasingly common after the age of 25 and is prevalent at all older ages. Chronic lymphocytic leukemia is unusual before the age of 45 and after 50 its incidence rises rapidly paralleling the incidence of the common malignant diseases. Monocytic leukemia is usually seen in middle aged persons (Fig 3).

The leukemias are about equally common in both sexes except for the chronic lymphocytic variety which is three times as common in men as in women.

Human leukemia is prevalent in all parts of the world but it seems to be more common in countries that have a higher standard of living and are technologically more advanced. Part of the difference may be due to more efficient diagnosis and more accurate reporting in these countries although in the United States leukemia is less common in Negroes than in other races.

Leukemia is becoming more common. In nearly all countries where reliable statistics are available there has been a steady rise in the incidence of leukemia which has about doubled itself in the past 20 years. Improved diagnostic methods and better reporting are not enough to account for this rise. Indeed leukemia is increasing as a cause of death more rapidly than any other disease except cancer of the lung and coronary thrombosis.

The cause of the increase is still unknown. Increasing use of x rays in medical diagnosis may play a part but cannot account for the whole picture.

Physicians constitute the only occupational group with an increased incidence of leukemia. They have about twice as much leukemia as the general population and radiologists who are exposed to small doses of radiation in their daily work have ten times as much as other physicians.

Survivors of the nuclear bomb explosions in Hiroshima and Nagasaki in 1945 have a definitely higher incidence than nonexposed Japanese. Patients given large doses of x rays in the treatment of ankylosing spondylitis a nonmalignant condition

affecting young men are found to have a significantly increased incidence of leukemia many years after the exposure. The above three are the best evidence for the hypothesis that ionizing radiation can cause leukemia in man. There is at present no concrete evidence to suggest other specific factors what they may be is still subject for speculation.

**Leukemia is not a familial disease in the ordinary sense it is not inherited.** Indeed a number of leukemic mothers have been delivered of healthy infants. However there is a slight familial tendency toward leukemia; patients with leukemia are likely than other patients to have leukemic relatives.

**Etiology** Generally speaking the problem of cause of naturally occurring leukemia is not so simple. However some agents are known that can cause leukemia in some species including man.

Many attempts have been made to identify an infectious agent of leukemia. These have been successful only in birds. The prevalent and economically important disease of domestic chickens leukemia like condition known as fowl leukosis caused by a virus. The disease is evidently infectious in nature and can be transmitted experimentally from an affected animal to another in the laboratory. It is not necessary to use living leukemic cells to transmit the disease; tissue extracts pass through filters fine enough to remove all animal cells and even bacteria are sufficient. The filter agent or virus of fowl leukosis can be cultivated in vitro under very special conditions. It will grow in embryonated hen's eggs like so many common viruses but will grow in tissue cultures of cells of the natural host. Further the virus appears to impart neoplastic properties to these cells even in vitro.

Since 1951 several investigators have been able to transmit mouse leukemia by means of cell filtrates prepared from tissues of afflicted animals. Only newborn mice seem to be susceptible to the filterable agent and there is a considerable time lag before the subject develops clinical evidence of the disease. Not all the treated animals develop leukemia. It would appear that a filterable agent probably a virus plays a key role in mouse leukemia but it is probably not the only factor involved. There is no evidence that leukemia can be transmitted in man although transfusions of leukemic blood have been given to nonleukemic persons.

Leukemia occurs spontaneously in many strains of mice and it has a very high incidence in some highly inbred strains suggesting that at least in this species hereditary factors play a role. However it is also possible that strictly hereditary factors are not responsible but rather that the filterable virus suggested above is transmitted from generation to generation by way of the ovum. Leukemia can be induced in mice of a susceptible strain as well as in other species of laboratory animals by exposure to ionizing radiation. Sever

chemical agents, including methylcholanthrene increase the incidence of leukemia in colonies of susceptible strains of mice. Some naturally occurring hormones have a similar effect when given in large doses at a considerable period of time.

In man, the relation between the recognized hormones and leukemia is unknown. However, mice peritoneal have been able to isolate from the urine of leukemic patients substances that produce overgrowth of the bone marrow when injected into guinea pigs. The substance isolated from patients with chronic granulocytic leukemia has about hyperplasia of the granulocytic cells of the marrow.

While the substance isolated from human cases of lymphocytic leukemia induces hyperplasia of the lymphocytic cells, the origin of these substances within the body is unknown. The result of these experiments has suggested that the net result is that certain forms of human leukemia may be due to reproduction of neoplastic cells of both of these marrow subtypes. But as yet there is no satisfactory evidence to implicate these factors in the etiology of leukemia.

There is no convincing proof that any of the above agents, with the exception of ionizing radiation, plays a role in the causation of human leukemia. It is probably best to regard human leukemia as a neoplasm a form of cancer affecting the cells of the blood, the bone marrow and the lymphoid. To cause of cancer, however, is unknown, and classification of leukemia as cancer is not the answer to the question of its causation. It may be that leukemia has the same etiology as a similar one as any other form of cancer. It may be that the amplification of the possibility of virus infection, several of the terrible cancers of domestic animals, especially blooded horses and cattle.

It seems likely that the number of factors must cooperate to produce leukemia. A man perhaps a susceptible hereditary situation is necessary

upon which one or several external agents must act to produce the disease. See HORMONE ONCOLOGY VIRUS XRAY(S) PHYSICAL NATURE OF

**Pathology and pathogenesis** If leukemia is regarded as a form of cancer, the primary site of the neoplastic proliferation is the bone marrow or the lymph node in the case of lymphocytic leukemia. No mal blood forming marrow, about one half fat and the remainder consists of multiphasic and developing precursor of blood cells, red cells, white cells and platelets. The functional parts of the red cell carry oxygen to various parts of the body. The white cells of various kinds play a key part in the tissue response known as inflammation and are important in the defense of the body against infection by microorganisms. The platelets have an important function in blood coagulation. They plug small breaks in the wall of blood vessels and promote the formation of clots. With a small wound may bleed uncontrollably for long periods.

**Hypertrophy** Under conditions the bone marrow elements may undergo hyperplasia or overgrowth. In acute anemia from sudden loss of blood, the red cell precursors multiply rapidly and their number in the marrow increases notably. New maturing cells are thrown into the circulation; blood plasma, the definite in short term, the new would be possible with it. Hypertrophy is especially in acute infections where granulocytic white cells are more numerous. The use of infection from the blood, the precursor of the white cells, the marrow undergoes hyperplasia and pours them into the circulation. The blood. These forms of hyperplasia have a useful function and are important in returning the body to equilibrium after it has been disturbed. A notable example is the hemorrhage caused by bacteria. When the underlying cause of the hyperplasia no longer persists, when the anemia is replaced by the infection, the marrow returns to its original condition.

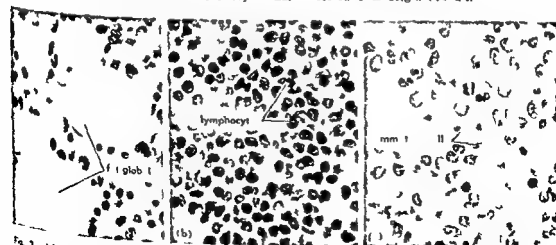


Fig. 3 (a) Normal bone marrow cells, high magnification. (b) Bone marrow with lymphocytic leukemia, high magnification. (c) Bone marrow with myeloid leukemia, high magnification.

**Leucocyte proliferation** In leukemia however the hyperplasia of white cell precursors in the marrow differs from physiological reactive hyperplasia by being relentlessly progressive and apparently uncontrolled. It is autonomous and is not dependent on any recognized condition of the rest of the body. As the primitive white cells multiply they first replace the fatty tissue of the marrow. After a time they replace all of the available fat and proliferating further begin to crowd out the progenitors of the red cells and of the platelets. Microscopic examination of the marrow shows massively increased numbers of immature white cells at the expense of red cell and platelet precursors. In some cases especially of acute leukemia the overgrowth of white cells is so massive as to impinge upon and destroy the hard calcified structural tissue of bone producing areas of bone erosion visible in x-ray film, occasionally painful tumors and rarely fracture.

While the leukemia cells are proliferating in the marrow many of them are being released into the blood. Normal blood contains 5 000–10 000 white cells per cubic millimeter in man (somewhat more in most domestic animals). In chronic leukemias counts of 100 000 are common and counts of more than 1 000 000 have been reported. In acute leukemias the white cell counts are not so high but in the early stages the cells fail to mature and are released into the blood at an early stage of development. In chronic leukemias on the other hand many of the cells released into the blood are fully mature, some are of an intermediate stage of development and only rarely are very young forms found.

From the circulating blood the leukemic cells colonize the various organs of the body. The liver (Fig 4a) and spleen are involved early in most cases and these organs soon become diffusely infiltrated with huge numbers of leukemic cells. The spleen especially in chronic granulocytic leukemia becomes tremendously enlarged. The kidneys (Fig 4b), lungs, heart, skin, lymph node and other organs often become infiltrated. The leukemic cells continue to proliferate in the new locations pouring more cells into the circulating blood. As they multiply they lead to enlargement of the involved organ and to eventual impairment of its function. Generally the increased number of circulating white cells produces few disturbances in the well being of the patient and it is not until late in the course of the chronic form of the disease that the viscera become sufficiently involved to destroy their function. At this time infiltration of the liver may lead to jaundice.

**Complications due to anemia** Anemia is a frequent complication of leukemia and occurs early in the acute forms. As the leukemic cell crowd out the red cell progenitors in the marrow red cell production is impaired. Another mechanism also contributes significantly to the anemia. The spleen which normally destroys and disposes of red cells at the end of their useful lifespan in becoming involved with leukemia becomes excessively active

and destroys red cells at a faster than normal rate leading to a condition known as hemolytic anemia.

**Purpura** Similarly the leukemic process crowds out platelet formation in the marrow leading to decreased circulating platelets and consequently bleeding tendency or purpura. Bleeding is usually not an early manifestation in chronic leukemia but is often an initial symptom in the acute form. The bleeding tendency may be manifested by bruising, small hemorrhages in the skin and mucous membranes or by serious hemorrhage from bowel or lung. Paradoxically platelets are sometimes increased in the early stages of chronic granulocytic leukemia.

**Resistance to infection** As the white cells play a role in resistance to infection it might be supposed that leukemic patients would be at least normally resistant. However these patients suffer far more than their share of infectious processes. It appears that the neoplastic widely growing and often immature white cells are not nearly so efficient in coping with bacteria as their normal counterparts. In acute leukemias especially the very young cells in the circulating blood are ineffectual. Recognized infections probably contribute to fever that is so often present in acute leukemia. Severe destructive infections about the mouth are prone to occur in acute cases.

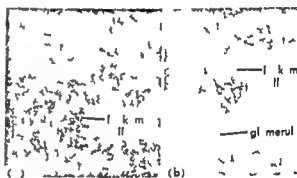


Fig 4 (a) Liver in chronic granulocytic leukemia showing gl infiltration by leukemic cells (small dark cells). (b) Kidney in chronic granulocytic leukemia showing gl infiltration by leukemic cells (small dark cells).

Terminally there develops the picture of cachexia, the marked weakness and wasting seen in the late stages of most malignant diseases. All the patient's metabolic resources seem to be diverted to supplying the leukemic processes at the expense of the normal vegetative processes of his body. **SEVERE CIRCULATION DISORDERS LEUKOPENIA**

**Course and treatment** By definition chronic leukemias have a course of more than 1 year from onset. Most cases have a mature cell in the blood survive a good deal longer. Granulocytic leukemia average about 3 years and lymphocytic leukemia somewhat longer. But the outlook for survival is variable and cannot be predicted accurately in any given case. Occasional cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia have been known to survive in relatively good general health for 10 or more years. Other

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 k e m c e l l e o t b e g e w i t h u t d e s t y i g  
 e i b e r t u e s d e d g e u a l l y l m t e d b y t h e  
 d i c e t n r m l b o e m a r o w l l w i t h t  
 i h t e i d d l w u l d d f e m h m  
 t h g o f e c t n R d a t o n n b e a d m i t e r d  
 r h e r t e r n a l l y b y m e o f a n x r a y m a c h n e o r  
 w i r e l l y b y g a g t h p t i n t r d c t o  
 t o p e P h o s p h u s 32 : a l l y u e d T h e l m e t  
 a c c u m u l t e s l e t e l y n t h r p d l y g r w n g e l l  
 f t h e b o e m a r r w h r i s t s a b n r a g b e t a  
 r a d i t m k m n y c e l l s d p a e m h f  
 t e e f t h e b o d y R a d t o s u e l s a d d n  
 g r e i n u t e l k m i a s

In e c e n t y s e v e r a l d r g h a n b e n d e e l  
 o p e d h h m m x a y n t h e l c t d e s t r u c  
 t o f a t l y p r l i f e a t c e l l s T h e y t b y  
 u t f r g w i t h c r t i b s h e m a l p n e s e s  
 n e e r a r y f t l l e l l g r o w t h a d e l l d t o S o m e  
 f t h e s e d r u g a n b e u e d s a t e l e k m i s s  
 t o c i l l y t h y p r o d c a c m p l t m o n  
 o n a t g s e v e r a l m o n t h e v n a y r o m r  
 e o d h r m n e s r p r e e n t e d b y c o t i s o n d  
 a m b e l d t h e l p f l t h s y m p t o m  
 a c t r o l o f e l f r m s f l e u k e m I n c t e  
 l e u k e m f c h i l d e n t h e y o c a n l l y d u e  
 d m i r m i n T h m b n m f s t n f  
 t h e h r m e s i n l k e m i t k w n a t t h  
 p e n e n t t u m

B b l g p h y W A D A n d e s n P t h l g y  
 3 d d 19 7 W D m h e k a d F G u n z L u k m i a  
 19 9 C C d G r u h y C l c t H m t o l g y r  
 W d n l P t 1958 M M W t l l C l c l  
 H m a i o l g y 4 t h e d 1956

# Leukocidin

A s b s t a n c e t h t d e t r y s l e u k c y t e s t h e w h i t e  
 c e l l s f b l o o d L e u k c i d s a r e a c e l l u l a r b  
 a n c e w h i c h a p p e a r s t h e e n n m e n t f c e r t a i n  
 p e c i e s o f g r w i g b a c t e r i a T h e y a r e r e l e a d i n t o  
 c u l t u r e m e d i a a d t h r p h y s i c a l a n d h e m i c a l  
 p p e r t i e g g e t t h a t t h y p r o t e i n s

L e u k d n c a l e d e t e c t e d b y a v a r i e t y f  
 m e t h o d f e x a m p l e b y i m p a i r m e n t o f c a p a c i t y  
 o f l e k o c y t e t o r e d u c e m e t h y l e e b l e s o t h e r  
 h y d r o g n a c c p t r s r e d u c t n o r l o s o f l o c m o  
 t n o f l e u k o y t s a l t e a t i o m c e l l u l a r m r p h  
 o g y a r e v e a l e d b y e m i n a t n f l i n g c l l s r  
 t a i e d p r p a r a t i o n s r l e a e f l y x y m e s o t h e r  
 e n z y m e s b y d a m a g d l e u k o c y t e s a d f a l u e f  
 l k o c y t e s t o g g l t e i n t h e p r e n c e o f k a l n  
 a n d l k a l T h e m o t h r o g h l y t d i e d l e u k c i d i s  
 a r e t h o e p o d u e d b y s t a p h y l o c o c c i n d t r e p t o  
 c c i I m o t i n s t a n c e t h e r o l e i n t h e g e s i s

o f d e a h a o t b e e n c l e a r l y e t b l h e d S e  
 S T A P H Y L O C O C C U S S T R E P T O C O C C U S [ A W B ]  
 B b l o g p h y G P G l a d i n e n d W E v a n  
 H e y g e S t p h y l c o c c i l e c o c i d i n B t J  
 E x p t l P t h o l 38 193-137 1957 E W T o d d T h e  
 l e u i d n o f g r u p A h m l y t i c t r e p t o c o c c i B i t  
 J E x p t l P a t h l o l 23 136-145 1942

# Leukopenia

T h e c o d i t y o f t h e b l o o d c h r a t e r i z e d b y a d e  
 r e a s e n t h e n m b o f c i r c u l a t i n g w h i t e e l l o r  
 l e k o c y t e l t s u t a d i e i n i t s e l f b u t r a t h e r  
 a s y m p t o m I t m a y o c c i t h e c o s e o f a g r a t  
 r i s t y f d e a s I t s i m p o r t a n e n a n y g e n  
 a e d p e n d o i t s e v u t y n d o t h e n a t r o f  
 t h e d e r l y i n g p a t h l o g c p r o c e l s m c o n d i  
 t n l e k p n i a m a y b e i d n t a l c o n c m i  
 t a t i n o t h e r s i m y b e t h e u t a d i n g f e a t m  
 d t l l a s o t h e a t l i f

T h e l u k y t p l y n e s s e n t a l r o l e t h e  
 b o d y m e c h m m f d f e e a g n s t n f c t o b y  
 m n y k n d f m i r o o r g m A m r k e d d e e m  
 t h n m b e r f a l b l e w h i t e l l w e a k e s t h  
 d f e e n d t i t h e t e t o f u n c i r l l b l e n  
 f e c t n t h t o n t i t e s t h e m e n e e o f l e u k o p e i a

T h e r m l w h t c l l o t i m m r a n g e s b e  
 t w 5000 a d 10000 l l p e r c u b i m i l l i m t e  
 f b l o o d C o s t b e t w e e n 2000 a d 5000 m m  
 m o a n m b e r o f o d i t u s a n d m a y n t b e f  
 g e t g f i c c e h w e v e r u s t h l w 2000 a r e  
 f g a e i m p o t O f t h t h e l l n d s o f w h t e c l l s  
 f d n r m l b l o o d t h g r a u l o y t e s t h l y m  
 p h o y t e s d t h e m o o y s t s t h e g r n l c y t e s  
 t h a t s l g l y f l e c t e d n m s t f r m s o f l e u k o  
 p n a d t h e c e l l s t h e m s t i m p o r t a n t n  
 e s t n e t i f e c t n S B L O O D I N F E C T I O N

E t i o l o g y a n d p a t h o g e n e s i s L e u k o p n a o c u s  
 s n c d n t l a n d n g i n a a t d h t e r g e n e o  
 g r o p f p t h l g c n d t A m o g t h e s e  
 i f e t l d g t h f b c t e r a l v r l a d  
 p r i z o a l m f s m p l t y p h d f e v e i f l  
 z a a d m l a H o w e r m m s t f t h e o m  
 m n b a t e a l s f e c t n t h w h t c u n t l e



**Leucocyte proliferation** In leukemia however the hyperplasia of white cell precursors in the marrow differs from physiological reactive hyperplasia by being relentlessly progressive and apparently uncontrolled. It is autonomous and is not dependent on any recognized condition of the rest of the body. As the primitive white cell multiply they first replace the fatty tissue of the marrow. After a time they replace all of the available fat and proliferating further begin to crowd out the progenitors of the red cells and of the platelets. Microscopic examination of the marrow shows massively increased numbers of immature white cells at the expense of red cell and platelet precursors. In some cases especially of acute leukemia the overgrowth of white cells is so massive as to impinge upon and destroy the hard calcified structural tissue of bone producing areas of bone erosion visible in x-ray films occasionally painful tumors and rarely fracture.

While the leukemia cells are proliferating in the marrow many of them are being released into the blood. Normal blood contains 5000-10000 white cells per cubic millimeter in man (somewhat more in most domestic animals). In chronic leukemias counts of 100000 are common and counts of more than 1000000 have been reported. In acute leukemias the white cell counts are not so high but in the early stages the cells fail to mature and are released into the blood at an early stage of development. In chronic leukemias on the other hand many of the cells released into the blood are fully mature, some are of an intermediate stage of development and only rarely are very young forms found.

From the circulating blood the leukemic cells colonize the various organs of the body. The liver (Fig 4a) and spleen are involved early in most cases and these organs soon become diffusely infiltrated with huge numbers of leukemic cells. The spleen especially in chronic granulocytic leukemia becomes tremendously enlarged. The kidney (Fig 4b), lungs, heart, skin, lymph nodes and other organs often become infiltrated. The leukemic cells continue to proliferate in these new locations pouring more cells into the circulating blood. As they multiply they lead to enlargement of the involved organ and to eventual impairment of its function. Generally the increased number of circulating white cells produces few disturbances in the well-being of the patient and it is not until late in the course of the chronic form of the disease that the viscera become sufficiently involved to destroy their function. At this time infiltration of the liver may lead to jaundice.

**Complications due to anemia** Anemia is a frequent complication of leukemia and occurs early in the acute forms. As the leukemic cells crowd out the red cell progenitors in the marrow red cell production is impaired. Another mechanism also contributes significantly to the anemia. The spleen which normally destroys and disposes of red cells at the end of their useful lifespan in becoming involved with leukemia becomes excessively active

and destroys red cells at a faster than normal rate leading to a condition known as hemolytic anemia.

**Purpura** Similarly the leukemic process chokes out platelet formation in the marrow leading to decreased circulating platelets and consequent bleeding tendency or purpura. Bleeding is usually not an early manifestation in chronic leukemia but is often an initial symptom in the acute forms. The bleeding tendency may be manifested by easy bruising, small hemorrhage in the skin and mucous membranes or by serious hemorrhage from the bowel or lung. Paradoxically platelets are sometimes increased in the early stages of chronic granulocytic leukemia.

**Resistance to infection** As the white cells play a role in resistance to infection it might be supposed that leukemic patients would be at least normally resistant. However the patients suffer from more than their share of infectious processes. It appears that the neoplastic widely growing and often immature white cells are not nearly so efficient in coping with bacteria as their normal counterparts. In acute leukemias especially the very young cells in the circulating blood are ineffectual. Unrecognized infections probably contribute to the fever that is so often present in acute leukemia. Severe destructive infections about the mouth are prone to occur in acute cases.

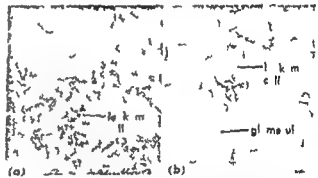


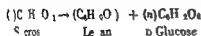
Fig 4 (a) Liver section chronic granulocytic leukemia showing infiltration by leukemia cells (small dark cells). (b) Kidney section chronic granulocytic leukemia showing infiltration by leukemia cells (small dark cells).

Terminally there develops the picture of cachexia, the marked weakness and wasting seen in the late stages of most malignant disease. All the patient's metabolic resources seem to be directed to supplying the leukemic process at the expense of the normal vegetative processes of his body. See **CIRCULATION DISORDERS LEUKOPENIA**.

**Course and treatment** By definition chronic leukemias have a course of more than 1 year from onset. Most cases having mature cells in the blood survive a good deal longer. Granulocytic leukemias average about 3 years and lymphocytic leukemias somewhat longer. But the outlook for survival is variable and cannot be predicted accurately in any given case. Occasional cases of chronic lymphocytic leukemia have been known to survive in relatively good general health for 10 or more years. Other

4th gh the m lecular s ze f the polysaccharides  
 formed b diff r t m croorgan ms varies it as al  
 ways gh, being of the rde of 10 or more. The  
 less are polyfructo e cha ns having u s mutu  
 ally s med th o gh c b n at m 2 (glycosidal  
 d group) and carb n atom 6 p suts thercly  
 diff n f fr m inulin, which has its fruct se u its  
 go thr gh c rbo atom 2 nd carb n at m 1  
 go to

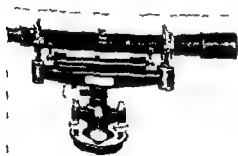
The microorganism uses sucrose as a substrate but produces only the fructose molecule to form the ketone.



4. POLYSACCHARIDE.

[WZH]

## Level (surveying)

[illegible]

by 1 vol

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wep ngly as hed t the upp r g y ke and  
the wye, w th th tel sc pe remo able f om the  
th c. A p e e l h a s l a l e i f f ap-  
proum c l l g and am c m t e r a r e w f final  
entering f l l g tubal i v t b b l e Th b b l e  
can be viewed thr gh a eties f p m while the  
nd s ad

instruments. The mag is applied in self eling  
 ubl g the line of ight opended with a  
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 h footc a d c ula lei th l n of  
 t em na h rizontal f all p intng Fo th  
 lley la n urvey gae SURVEY C

[ R H D O ]

### Level measurement

The determination of the linear vertical distance between a reference point and the surface of a liquid or the top of a pile of divided solids. Since there is little similarity between liquid and solid level measurement they are treated separately in this article.

## LIQUID-LEVEL MEASUREMENT

Sufficient measurements are possible only  
 when the liquid is undisturbed by turbulence  
 or aeration. When a liquid is too turbulent for the  
 aerograph to be read a baffled or stilling chamber  
 is inserted in the tank or vessel to provide a satis-  
 factory surface.

**Stick hook and tape gages** The e are u ed in open es el wh re the urfa e of the liquid c n eadily be observed Th stick gag i a suitably divided verti al rod or ti k ncho ed in the ve sel

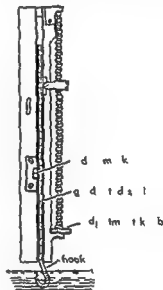


Fig 1 H k g g (Fom W U w A T i  
Hyd l M mil 1912)

that the magnitude of the deflection of the level may be measured. The hook gage (Fig 1) provides a reading point, which is adjusted to disturb the liquid surface slightly at the level reading. The minimum zigzag movement of the tape gage is due to the correction of the liquid level to the position of the plumb line (Fig 2). In important situations the tape gage is completely unaffected by the movement of the plumb line. The liquid surface is undisturbed by the hook gage. The liquid surface is undisturbed by the hook gage.

Gage glasses Ma y form of g ge gl a y  
a l ble f the mea m at o f l q d lev l liq d  
in a tank es l i onne ted t the gag gl  
by u tabl fitt ng and when th t nk i unde  
e the ppe end f the gl s mu t b on  
nected t t i k p pa Th th liq uid  
ses t bstant ally the ame he ght in th glas

vated reflecting the increased production of white cells by the marrow and their transport to the involved tissues. But even these infections if over-whelming may be associated with leukopenia if the demand for white cells is so great that the resources of the marrow are exhausted.

Leukopenia is regularly found in a group of diseases whose only common factor is enlargement of the spleen as for example cirrhosis of the liver. The mechanism of this form of leukopenia is not entirely understood. Some investigators postulate a hormone-like substance produced in increased amounts by an enlarged spleen that specifically inhibits development of leukocytes in the marrow. Attempts to isolate and identify this hormone have not been successful.

Advanced and widespread cancer may produce leukopenia when it invades the bone marrow extensively and effectively crowds out the white cell producing tissues. In this condition known as myelophthisis there is an associated anemia due to the same cause.

Leukopenia, sometimes severe and life threatening, is regularly produced by certain physical and chemical agents when they are given in sufficient dosage. Among these are x-ray, benzene, arsenic and a group of synthetic compounds used in the treatment of leukemia. These agents all have the power of selectively injuring rapidly dividing and proliferating cells. They thus impair multiplication of the white cell precursors in the marrow which are among the most actively dividing cells in the body. Accidental exposure to sufficient dosage of radiation—as from the products of nuclear weapons or of benzene which may occur in industrial exposure—may result in a severe progressive and fatal leukopenia. Smaller doses produce a milder leukopenia or none at all. The drugs used in the treatment of leukemia and other neoplastic diseases are given in dosages carefully controlled to keep the bone marrow depression within tolerable limits. However the leukopenia induced by therapy occasionally becomes a clinical problem.

Another chemically and pharmacologically diverse group of drugs, many of them in common use rarely or occasionally produce a severe leukopenia in especially sensitive patients although they have no effect on the white cells of the great majority of the patients who receive them. Amidopyrine is a well known offender and several sulfonamides, antihistamines, anticonvulsant agents and a variety of others are occasionally implicated. The mechanism whereby these drugs can produce such devastating effects in an occasional patient while having no effect on the majority even when given in large doses is not known. There is some evidence that it is a hypersensitivity phenomenon related to allergy. The leukopenia usually appears after the drug has been given for some considerable period of time or often during a second course of treatment with the same drug suggesting that sensitivity is acquired in the manner of an allergy.

A considerable number of cases of severe leuko-

ble cause and are designated as being idiopathic. See ALLERGY, ATOPIC LYMPHATIC SYSTEM, X-RAY(S), PHYSICAL NATURE OF.

**Course and manifestations.** The milder incidental forms of leukopenia usually produce no clinical manifestations and will not be discussed further. The more severe forms as produced by radiation or chemical agents often present the clinical pictures of pancytopenia or agranulocytosis.

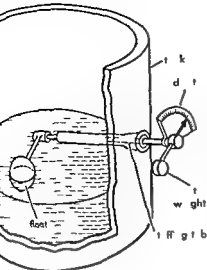
In pancytopenia all circulating blood cells red and white as well as platelets are diminished reflecting depressed production of all of these elements by the marrow. This condition can be produced both by the regular marrow depressing agents and those producing hypersensitivity as well as occurring spontaneously. The clinical findings are those of an aplastic anemia, leukopenia and purpura, a bleeding tendency due to diminished platelets. Often anemia is the most serious problem requiring repeated transfusion but in other cases repeated and poorly resisted infections due to the leukopenia predominate. The cases induced by drugs frequently recover after a variable period of time if the patient does not succumb to infection early in the course but many of those occurring without known cause follow a chronic course for many years. Microscopic examination of the marrow in pancytopenia may show either hypoplasia with generally reduced numbers of the precursors of the blood cells or a normal degree of cellularity with failure of the young cells to mature.

Agranulocytosis is the name applied to the acute illness resulting from drug hypersensitivity or occasionally from an undiscoverable cause. It is manifested by a rather sudden onset of severe leukopenia often with complete disappearance of the granulocytes. There is usually no associated anemia or platelet deficiency. Most of the symptoms and the high mortality are due to infection by bacteria. The clinical onset is often sudden with chills, fever, marked prostration soon followed by evidence of infection which often takes the form of ulcerated lesions in the mouth. The patient may die in a few days of pneumonia or dissemination of the infectious process throughout the body. With modern antimicrobial treatment infection may be controlled for a time but even so the condition has a high mortality. Bone marrow findings are variable and nonspecific but there is always a lack of the more mature white cell precursors.

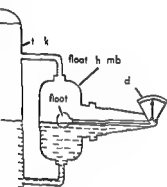
The only treatment that is undoubtedly useful is the administration of antibiotic drugs to control infection. These drugs have been life saving in some cases but their effectiveness is hampered by the almost complete lack of the patient's natural mechanisms of defense. See CIRCULATION DISORDERS. {ran}

## **Levan**

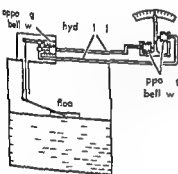
A polysaccharide and a polymer of D-fructose (fructans) produced by a range of microorganisms such as *Bacillus mesentericus*, *B. vulgatus*, *B. subtilis*, *B. megaterium*, and *A.robacter levanicum*.



Float and displacer



Float and displacer



Float and displacer

tr s i g e a t m g n t d e t h n w i t h t h e  
n e c h n m B o y t y l i d e o r d p l r  
p r i m i m p o r t a c f p p l c t n l e d  
u n d r p r e . A s t h e l e l h g s t h  
r a f e d e v e l p e d w i t h t a p p e c  
m o v e m t f t h d m l r T h f t  
t t e d t h m g h t h e s e l w a l l b y a h a f t d  
q u a t u b e f l e x b l t b r f l e b l e d

phragm Because mechanical friction is minimized, displacer units are sensitive to smaller changes in level than float units which require stuffing boxes. Another advantage is that liquid displacer can be supported on short levers because of the negligible travel with level change. The good design can be provided for larger level change than can be readily handled by the float and lever system.

Displacer type level elements are available in many designs for both the internal and external tank installation. In Fig 9 the small motion of the displacer is brought out of the tank for measuring or transmission purposes by small shaft with a weight which supports the displacer. In Fig 10 the change in weight of the displacer is detected externally by a nozzle and baffle and is balanced by a pneumatic system.

**Pressure gages** Hydrostatic head may also be used to measure liquid level. The head of a liquid varies directly with its density as well as with its level and thus this method of measurement requires that density be substantially constant. Density of liquids varies with temperature and are therefore introduced with temperature changes or the measuring element must be temperature compensated. Errors are also introduced if appreciable flow occurs in the line leading to the head measurement.

Most pressure measuring elements may be used on liquid level. The pressure gage is limited to relatively large level changes in open tanks. Mercury differential manometer is a useful instrument for range included well as open tank because the instrument is easily differentiated by summing devices. The bell manometer and sickle differential gage are adapted to the measurement of small liquid level change. For differential pressure measurement.

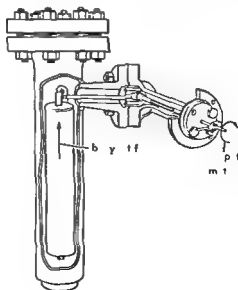


Fig 9 Transmitter (F. H. E. C.)

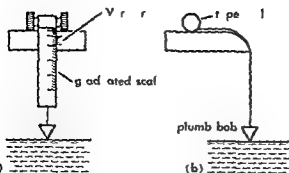


Fig 2 Tape gage (a) Front view (b) Side view

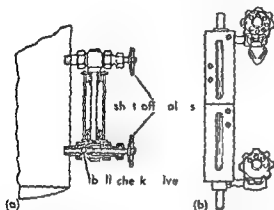


Fig 3 Gage glasses (a) Low pressure type (b) High pressure type (From D M Considine *Selected Process Instruments and Controls Handbook* McGraw Hill 1957)

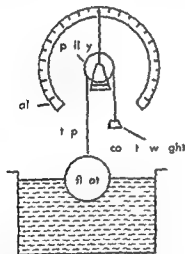


Fig 4 Float tap and pulley gage (D M Considine *Selected Process Instruments and Controls Handbook* McGraw Hill 1957)

as in the tank and this height is measured by suitable scale. In order to avoid errors due to capillarity, gage glasses with an internal diameter smaller than  $\frac{1}{8}$  in. are not recommended unless a correction is applied. Most gage glasses are equipped with shut-off valves to permit cleaning and replacement of the gage glass without emptying the tank and with check valves to prevent loss of liquid in the event of glass breakage. Low pressure gages are cylindrical glass or plastic tubes; high pressure gages are metal tubes with thick glass windows (Fig 3).

**Float mechanisms** Various types of float mechanism are also used for liquid level measurement. The float tape and pulley gage provides an excellent method of measuring large changes in level with accuracy (Fig 4). It has the advantage that the scale can be placed for convenient reading at any point within a reasonable distance of the tank or vessel. It can be applied to the measurement of liquid in tanks under pressure, but frictional errors are introduced in bringing the tape through the wall of the tank. One solution is to maintain the tank pressure over the entire length of the tape and read the tape through a glass. Another solution is to introduce a magnetic coupling between the float which is under pressure and the tape actuator which is at atmospheric pressure (Fig 5).

**Float and lever mechanisms** These may be used advantageously in closed tanks under pressure when the liquid measured is viscous or when it would foul a gage glass. The internal type is located directly within the tank and is connected to an external indicator through a stuffing box (Fig 6). The external type incorporates an auxiliary cage or housing with connections to the liquid and vapor space in the main tank (Fig 7).

**Float operated hydraulic level gage** This utilizes the float and lever principle to actuate a remote gage through a hydraulic coupling (Fig 8). Float movements transfer liquid between a transmitting bellows and a remote bellows in the receiving gage. A dual opposed hydraulic system permits the mechanism to operate under pressure and compensates for temperature changes in the connecting hydraulic lines.

**Buoyant displacer elements** The change in buoyancy of a solid as its immersion in a liquid is varied is used to measure liquid level. This principle is used for liquid level measurement only when the densities of the liquid and vapor are substantially constant. Temperature changes will pro-

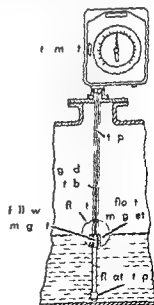


Fig 5 Magnetic float gage (Fletcher & Pratt Co.)



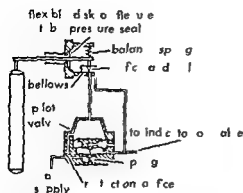


Fig 10 Force balance level unit (D M Cons'd ned Process Instruments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957)

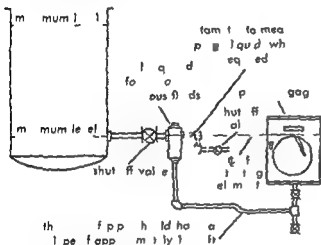


Fig 11 Pressure gage measuring tank level (D M Cons'd ned Process Instruments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957)

**Open tanks** In open tanks the pressure measuring element is connected directly to the tank at or near its bottom (the reference or datum point). The pressure element may be located at any reasonable distance from the tank and at any desired distance below the reference point but the element responds to the additional head due to the liquid in the lead line. Gas or vapor must be vented from the lead lines. Pressure measuring elements when used in this way normally have suppressed ranges so that the zero reading occurs at the pressure corresponding to the bottom of the tank level. With careful installation the pressure measuring element may be located above the reference point. This installation requires a gas tight lead line venting only when the tank level is high and the maximum safe elevation of the pressure measuring element is the head corresponding to one half of atmospheric pressure less the vapor pressure of the liquid (Fig 11). Temperature changes on sloping lead lines cause density change and errors are introduced unless the pressure element has special compensation for this effect.

To minimize lead line errors and venting trapped gas and gas purge systems have been developed. These systems make it possible to locate the pres-

sure measuring device at any reasonable distance above the reference point. The diaphragm box may be installed directly in the tank or connected to it at the reference level. A slack diaphragm separates the liquid from the trapped air or gas leading to the pressure gage. The diaphragm has no pressure constant hence the gas pressure equals that at the reference point and the remote gage indicates the head of the liquid with respect to the reference point (Fig 12). The gas volume in the pressure measuring system is kept small to minimize the temperature effect and the compressibility effect with liquid level changes.

On some installations a trapped gas system eliminating the slack diaphragm can be used. On these installations the gas must not be absorbed in the liquid and the liquid must not vaporize and condense in the lead line to the pressure measuring device. Provision is generally made for periodic gas checking and replacement. In the gas purge system (Fig 13) a small quantity of gas is bled into the system continuously. This gas is permitted to bubble from the box or a tube with an opening at the reference level. Purge rates of about 1 standard ft<sup>3</sup>/hour are common. Precautions are taken to avoid measurement of the pressure drop due to

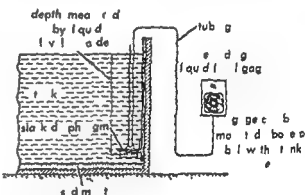


Fig 12 Trapped-gas level system using diaphragm box (Bisli Co)

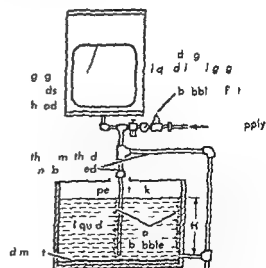


Fig 13 Gas purge level system (Bisli Co)

### SOLIDS-LEVEL MEASUREMENT

Solids level detectors are used to locate the top of a pile of solid material in large vessels or process storage equipment. The instruments are designed for the different solids handled and the installation must be carefully made to insure proper measurement. Because of the influence of many factors on the distribution of material and other factors, these detectors provide only an approximate indication of the volume present or the top of the pile. Solids level detectors are classified as continuous or fixed point.

**Continuous detectors** These provide continuous measurement of the level over the range for which they were designed. The output is a signal representative of the level of the solid.

The grid-type element (Fig. 22) is made of finely divided moving particles and provides continuous indication of the level surface. The grid is supported and weighed by a mechanical pneumatic system the weight increasing as the material rises. This construction may be used in a liquid or solid.

The ray meter and detector discussed previously for liquid level measurement are particularly useful for solids because all the equipment may be located outside the vessel.

The beam scale and other weighing devices are used particularly on small vessels as a process weighing equipment. See WEIGHT MEASUREMENT.

The capacitance type level detector also discussed under liquid level measurement is satisfactory for use on many finely divided solids.

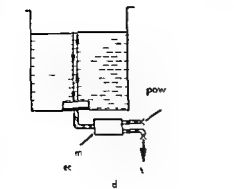


Fig. 21. Solids level detector (DMC) diagram showing a tank with a probe and a control unit.

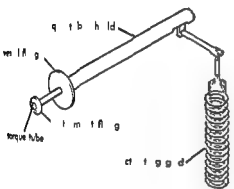


Fig. 22. Grid-type level detector diagram showing a mechanical weighing system.

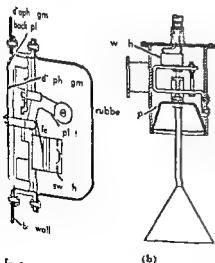


Fig. 23. Fixed-point level detector diagram showing a probe and a control unit.

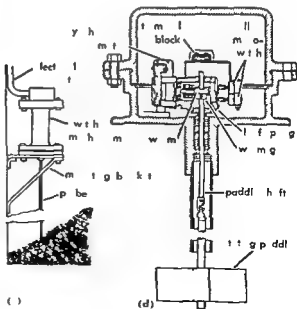


Fig. 24. Fixed-point level detector diagram showing a probe and a control unit.



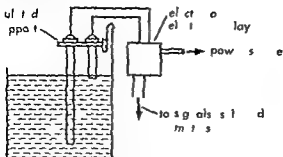


Fig 17 Conductivity probe type level system (D M Con d n e d Process I str ments and Controls Hand book McGraw Hill 1957)

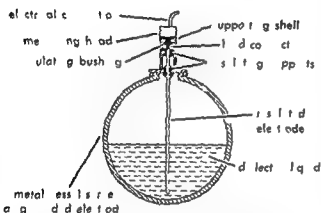


Fig 18 Capacitance probe type level system for electric liquid (D M Con d e d Process Inst u ments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957)

installed at suitable locations and consideration must be given to the differential in the specific gravity between the sealing liquid and the liquid in the tank

Thermal elements may be used for level control when the temperatures of a liquid and of the vapor space above it differ appreciably. Although standard thermal elements are used in some services a number of special designs offered for boiler service are particularly designed to handle the problem of boiler swell on increased steam demand. The level devices in this group are not precision devices and are not used for measurement purposes.

**Electrode or probe systems.** These are used in various forms for level indication and control (Fig 17). The number of electrodes and their design depend upon the characteristics of the liquid and the application. Fundamentally a circuit through a relay coil is closed (or opened) when the liquid contacts a probe. Electronic circuits are used when the liquid resistance is high.

**Capacitance measuring devices.** If the liquid being measured is a dielectric insulated probes may be inserted into it and the capacitance of the assembly will vary with the immersion of the probes in the liquid (Fig 18). The dielectric constant of the liquid must be different from that of the vapor and errors will occur if either of these changes appreciably. If the liquid is a conductor only one probe is necessary but it must be covered with an

insulating coating (Fig 19). As the liquid rises the probe the capacitance of the unit increases. Although capacitance methods of measuring liquid level have certain advantages (no moving parts corrosion resistance) they have certain disadvantages such as high cost susceptibility to dielectric changes and susceptibility to electrical interference. Therefore this method of level measurement is limited to those applications which cannot be readily handled by other means.

**Nuclear level gages.** These are used for difficult applications. Basically all of the units involve a source of gamma ( $\gamma$ ) radiation and a detector separated by the vessel or a portion of the vessel in which a liquid level varies. As the level rises the detector receives less  $\gamma$  radiation and thus the level is measured. Numerous designs are available for special application needs one of which is illustrated (Fig 20).

**Sonic level detector.** This is based on the time increment between the emission of a sound wave pulse and its reflection from liquid surface. The sound wave pulse is generated electronically and its time in transit is measured very accurately by electronic means. If the speed of sound in the liquid or in the vapor is known accurately the liquid level is known (Fig 21).

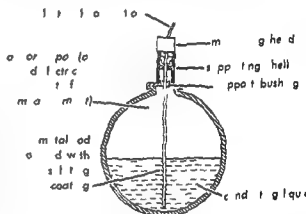


Fig 19 Capacitance probe type level system for conductive liquid (D M Con d e d Process Inst u ments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957)

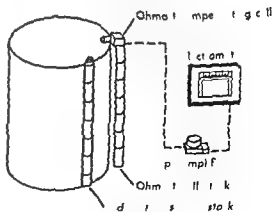


Fig 20 Gamma ray level gage (D M Con d e d Process Inst u ments and Controls Handbook McGraw Hill 1957)



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rock. (d) Umeo b bot fruit l h g w g



p u t b h (F m H J F II d O T pp  
C l i g B i y d H k 1954)



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## Leconce

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c a a b F L A O R I s [P v s ]

## Le detector

Le detector is a useful application of the physiological respiration of the machine is known as the polygraph  
be detector and widely used in the medical  
and forensic sciences for the detection of  
the hidden truth of the principal  
emotion and that emotion is the character  
of the physiological change. The physiological  
change is red by the detector changes in

relative blood pressure heart rate respiration  
moment and frequently palmar sweating o  
galactic kinematics The necessary apparatus  
is attached to a subject who is then asked a series  
of questions which he answers simply yes or  
no Some of the questions are not to be answered  
to establish the subject's characteristic responses to  
known truthful answer The significant questions  
on which the subject must either admit knowledge of the  
truth or lie

Lying is believed to be a motivational re  
sponse because of the conflict between the strong  
cultural tendency for truthfulness and the de  
sire to escape detection Persians lacking on  
scene may tell me an emotionless response  
lying if they believe in the fallibility of the machine

According to the review made by D I W l f e in  
1946 the accuracy of the polygraph in practice  
80% correct 30% wrong and 17% not test  
able The accuracy depends on the extent of the  
skill of the examiner who must be thoroughly  
trained and should have a good knowledge of the  
science

Most courts do not yet accept the detection re  
port as evidence although some have cited by  
me a false detection examination may usually  
be accepted [A F A]

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graphic Truth T t A symposium Tennessee Law  
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mary report of the subcommittee on the method of de  
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## Liesegang rings

Periodic precipitation of substances which form a slightly  
soluble precipitate in the case of a non-dimensional  
diffusion process is called Liesegang bands  
When placing a drop of a concentrated solution  
on a test solution of a substance, a series of

**Fixed point detectors** These indicate when a specific level has been reached. They are used mainly for actuating alarm signals. By installing a number of these however at different points the combined response can be made to approach that of a continuous detector. Four fixed point detectors are shown in Fig 23.

Diaphragm operated level detectors are widely used for finely divided solids (such as wheat) in open vessels.

The pendant cone and movable probe units used in large open vessels are actuated by the surface of the cone resulting from the piling of the material.

The rotating paddlewheel level detector is driven continuously by a small motor until the paddle is stopped by the presence of solid material. This device is widely used on finely divided solids in open vessels. [RECL]

**Bibliography** D M Considine (ed) *Process Instruments and Controls Handbook* 1957

## Lever

A pivoted rigid bar used to multiply force or motion, sometimes called the lever and fulcrum (Fig 1). The lever uses one of the two conditions for static equilibrium which is that the summation of moments about any point equals zero. (The other condition is that the summation of forces acting in any direction through a point equals zero. See INCLINED PLANE.)

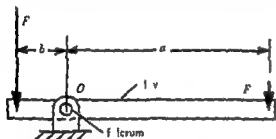


Fig 1 The lever pivots at the fulcrum

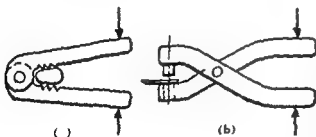


Fig 2 (a) Nutcracker (b) Paper Punch

If moments acting counterclockwise around the fulcrum of a lever are positive then for a frictionless lever

$$F_B b - F_A a = 0$$

thus

$$F_B = \frac{a}{b} F_A$$

If  $F_B$  is the output and  $F_A$  is the input the mechanical advantage is

$$MA = \frac{F_B}{F_A} = \frac{a}{b}$$

Applications of the lever range from the nutcracker and paper punch (Fig 2) to complex multiple lever systems found in scales and measuring machines used in the study of properties of materials. See SIMPLE MACHINE [RMPI]

## Libra

The Balance in astronomy is one of the 12 zodiacal constellations. Libra appears during the spring. It is the seventh sign of the Zodiac. The constellation consists of faint stars and is not conspicuous. It lies just west of the claws of Scorpio. The principal stars outline a four-sided figure resembling a balance with beam and pans. The balance may have been held originally in the hand of Virgo, a zodiacal constellation nearby who was identified with the Goddess of Justice. Another possible reason for identifying the constellation with the balance is that 2000 years ago the Sun was in Libra at the then autumnal equinox at which time day and night are of equal length. See CONSTELLATION [CSV]

## Lichens

A group of organisms having a dual nature: they are algal and fungal components are combined in a plant that is distinct and consistently recognizable. Over 15,000 species have been described. Because of the dual nature of lichens, they do not readily assume a natural position in any plant classification. They are widely distributed and occur in a great variety of habitats. Lichen may be found on bare rocks, soil, living tree trunk, and dead wood of any kind. They range from the arctic tundra where some species are found in such abundance as to provide pasturage for grazing animals to the tropics where some of the bark lichens are conspicuous. Frequently they are to be found where conditions are unfavorable for the growth of other plants. Most lichens are gray or grayish green but some are white, orange, yellow, yellowish green, brown, or black. In a few, certain structural features of the plant are brilliantly colored.

**Relationship** The complete relationship which exists between an alga and a fungus as associated in a lichen is not fully understood. The relationship has been cited as one of the best examples of symbiosis within the plant kingdom; however, some students of the group are not convinced that this is a reasonable explanation.

In most lichens the algal component is a member of either the blue-green algae (see CYANOPHYTA) or the green algae (see CHLOROPHYTA). The fungus component is usually a cup fungus (see ASCOMYCETES) or more rarely it is a club fungus (see BASIDIOMYCETES). The fungus usually forms a dense network of interweaving hyphae enveloping the algal cells. Depending on the configuration of



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po. at. b. ch. (F. m. H. J. F. l. r. a. d. O. T. p. p. o.  
 C. l. g. B. l. y. d. H. f. 1954)



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 B b l g phy S THALLOPHYTA

# Licence

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# Lie detector

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# Liesegang rings

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 n t r t s l t u o u p a g l p l t c o e r e d w t h a

gelatin layer containing potassium dichromate R E Lieegang observed in 1896 that the resulting precipitation of silver chromate did not spread continuously or quasi continuously but that individual precipitation zones separated by zones free of precipitate evolved in the form of concentric circles Similar phenomena have been observed with many other reactions

Periodic precipitation is due to the interplay of diffusion and nucleation which requires a certain degree of supersaturation Assume that solute *A* diffuses from a fairly concentrated solution into a dilute solution of *B* The precipitate *AB* starts to evolve the initially high degree of supersaturation drops and accordingly nucleation ceases Upon diffusion of *A* into farther regions not yet depleted with respect to *B* a sufficient degree of supersaturation is reached once more a second precipitation zone evolves and so forth See PRECIPITATION (CHEMISTRY) [C.W.]

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## Life origin of

The origin of life refers to the means by which living organisms arose on the earth which contained no life when it was formed While there is little difficulty in telling whether a higher organism is alive there is no agreement as to what characteristics would be required for the most primitive organisms in order to call them living The most outstanding characteristic of living organisms is their ability to reproduce Therefore the definition used here for a living organism will be an entity which is capable of making a reasonably accurate reproduction of itself with the copy being able to accomplish the same task Furthermore this organism must be subject to a low rate of changes (mutations) that are transmitted to its progeny

**Spontaneous generation** Until the nineteenth century it was almost universally held that life could arise spontaneously as well as by sexual or nonsexual reproduction The appearance of various insects and animals from decaying organic materials in the presence of warmth or sunlight was a common observation but this observation was misinterpreted to mean that the insects and animals arose spontaneously

The Tuscan physician Francesco Redi performed the first effective experiments (1668) to disprove the hypothesis of spontaneous generation He showed that the development of maggots in meat did not occur when the flask containing the meat was covered with muslin so that flies could not lay their eggs on the meat Lazzaro Spallanzani performed similar experiments (1765) showing that microorganisms did not appear in various nutrient broths if the vessels were sealed and boiled Objections were raised that the heating had destroyed in the broth and air the vital force which was putulated as necessary for life to develop By readmit

ting air it was possible to show that the broth could still support the growth of microorganism But Spallanzani could not demonstrate that the air in the sealed flask had not been altered and the doctrine of spontaneous generation persisted widely

The problem was finally solved by Louis Pasteur (1862) who used a flask with broth but in which sealing the flask drew out a long S shaped tube with its end open to the air The air was free to pass in and out of the flask but the particles of dust bacteria and molds in the air were caught on the sides of the S shaped tube When the broth in the flask was boiled and allowed to cool no microorganisms developed but when the S shaped tube was broken off at the neck of the flask microorganisms developed The experiment was extended by Pasteur and by J Tyndall to answer all objections that were raised and the doctrine of spontaneous generation was finally disproved

**Origin of life theories** Shortly before 1858 Charles Darwin and A R Wallace had published simultaneously and independently the theory of evolution by natural selection This theory could account for the evolution from the simplest single celled organism to the most complex plants and animals including man Therefore the problem of the origin of life was no longer how each species developed but only how the first living organism arose To answer this question a number of proposals have been advanced

It has been proposed that life was created by a supernatural event This has been a common belief of many people based on a literal interpretation of the first chapter of Genesis which describes the creation of all living organisms by a direct act of God This type of proposal is not considered by most scientists since it is not subject to scientific investigation

In 1903 S Arrhenius offered a second theory that life developed on the earth as a result of a spore or other stable form of life coming to the earth in a meteorite from outer space or by the pressure of sunlight driving the spores to the earth One form of this theory assumes that life had no origin but like matter has always existed The presence of long lived radioactive elements shows that the elements were formed anywhere from  $5$  to  $12 \times 10^9$  years ago If the elements have not always existed it is difficult to understand how life could have always existed Another form of this theory assumes that life was formed on another planet and traveled to the earth This hypothesis does not answer the question of how life arose on the other planet In addition most scientists doubt that any known form of life could survive for very long in outer space and fall through the earth's atmosphere without being destroyed Therefore while this theory has not been disproved it is held to be highly improbable

A third hypothesis held that the first living organism arose from inorganic matter by a very improbable event This organism in order to grow in

the gas enters into the synthesis of the carbon dioxide and the nitrogen present known to be essential for the synthesis of the protein of the photosynthetic cell from the compounds available in the atmosphere.

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the production of oxygen by the photosynthesis of water. There has not been sufficient time for the evolution of the photosynthetic organisms and the low temperature of the earth.

**Origin of organic compounds** Many attempts have been made to synthesize organic compounds and water with various gases, but the results have been inconclusive. All of the experiments led to the conclusion that the organic compounds are not formed by the action of the elements.

The ideas of Oparin and Urey from the experiments by S. L. Miller (1953) have shown that the formation of the amino acids from the hydrogen, water, and carbon dioxide is possible under conditions similar to those of the early earth.

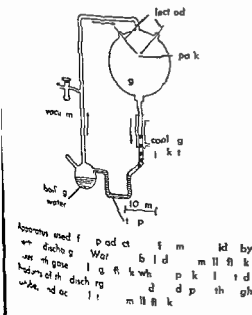
Other experiments have shown that the formation of the amino acids from the hydrogen, water, and carbon dioxide is possible under conditions similar to those of the early earth. The formation of the amino acids from the hydrogen, water, and carbon dioxide is possible under conditions similar to those of the early earth.

**Nature of first organisms** In the opinion of many scientists, the first organisms were simple molecules of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. The first organisms were simple molecules of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen.

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strips of polynucleotides. A coacervate is a type of colloid which forms two phases: one of the solution and one of the coacervate. Instead of a uniform dispersion as with most colloids. It is assumed that there would be some coacervate particles which could absorb proteins and other substances from the environment, grow in size and then split into two or more fragments which would repeat this process. In time the duplication would become more accurate and the genetic apparatus of nucleic acids would then develop. See COACERVATION.

These ideas about the nature of the first organisms are based on the assumption that the first forms of life were similar to present organisms in their basic chemical composition. All present organisms contain proteins, nucleic acids, carbohydrates and lipids. While the assumption may be incorrect, it is the best working hypothesis until it can be shown to be inadequate. Other possibilities for the development of the first organisms can be enumerated, but so little is known of the composition of the primitive oceans that such speculation is not profitable.

**Heterotrophic organisms.** While little can be said about the development of the first living organisms, reasonable hypotheses can be made for the development of the simple bacteria, algae and protozoa from the most primitive organisms. The theory that the primitive oceans contained large quantities of organic compounds implies that the first organisms were heterotrophic. Heterotrophic organisms do not synthesize their basic constituents such as amino acids, nucleotides, carbohydrates, vitamins and so forth, but obtain them from the environment. Autotrophic organisms synthesize all their cell constituents from  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and other inorganic materials. Heterotrophic organisms are simpler than autotrophic organisms in that they contain fewer enzymes and specialized structures to carry out their metabolism. Hence heterotrophic organisms would have been formed first.

A mechanism by which heterotrophic organisms could acquire various synthetic abilities was proposed by N. H. Horowitz (1945). It has been found that the presence of an enzyme in an organism is often dependent on a single gene. This is known as the *one gene-one enzyme hypothesis*. Suppose that the synthesis of A involves the steps



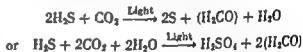
where a, b, and c are the enzymes and A, B, and C are compounds which the organism cannot synthesize. If the necessary compound A becomes exhausted from the environment, then the organism must synthesize A in order to survive. But it is extremely unlikely that there would be three simultaneous mutations to give the enzymes a, b, and c. However, a single mutation to give enzyme a would not be unlikely. If compounds D, C, and B were in the environment when A was exhausted, the organism with enzyme a could survive while the others would die out. Similarly, when compound B was ex-

hausted, enzyme b would arise by a single mutation and organisms without this enzyme would die. By continuing this process, the various steps in a biosynthetic process could be developed, the enzyme in the sequence being developed first, the first enzyme last.

**Energy and biosynthetic processes.** It is necessary for all living organisms to have a source of energy to drive the biochemical reactions that synthesize the various structures of the organism. The quantity that measures the available energy for a chemical reaction at constant temperature and pressure is termed the free energy (see FREE ENERGY). Animals obtain their free energy from the oxidation of organic compounds by molecular oxygen. Plants and other photosynthetic organisms obtain their free energy from the energy of light. There are also many microorganisms that obtain their free energy from fermentation reactions. For example, the lactic acid bacteria obtain their energy from the reaction



Yeasts also ferment glucose, but they produce ethyl alcohol and  $\text{CO}_2$  instead of lactic acid. There are bacteria which carry out many of the types of fermentation reactions. It is likely that organisms obtained their free energy from fermentation reactions until the supply of fermentable material was exhausted. At that point the development of photosynthetic organisms, which obtain their free energy from light, would become necessary. The porphyrin substance chlorophyll seems to be necessary for all types of photosynthesis and would have had to be present in the environment if its biosynthesis developed in some way. The first type of photosynthesis was probably similar to that of the sulfur bacteria and blue green algae which carry out the reactions



where (HCO) means carbon on the oxidation level of formaldehyde (carbohydrate). It is much easier to split  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  than to split  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and so it would seem likely that organisms would develop photosynthesis with sulfur first. When the  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  was exhausted, it would become necessary to split water and evolve  $\text{O}_2$ , the hydrogen being used for the reduction of  $\text{CO}_2$ . See CHLOROPHYLL and PHOTOSYNTHESIS.

When the methane and ammonia of the primitive atmosphere had been converted to carbon dioxide and nitrogen by photochemical decomposition in the upper atmosphere, water would be decomposed to oxygen and hydrogen. The hydrogen would escape, leaving the oxygen in the atmosphere and thereby resulting in oxidizing conditions on the earth. It is likely, however, that most of the oxygen in the atmosphere was produced by the photosyn-



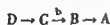


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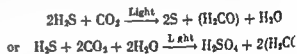
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chemistry. Rapid progress has been made toward an understanding of photosynthesis, the process by which plants produce relatively complex substances such as sugars in the presence of sunlight. This is but one example of the all important response of plant and animal life to light.

**Electromagnetic spectrum.** The electromagnetic spectrum is a broad band of radiant energy which extends over a range of wavelengths running from trillions of inches to hundreds of miles. Wavelengths of visible light are measured in hundreds of thousandths of an inch. Arranged in order of increasing wavelength, the radiation comprising the electromagnetic spectrum is termed gamma rays, x rays, ultraviolet rays, visible light, infrared waves, microwaves, radio and TV waves, and very long electromagnetic waves. Detailed descriptions of these radiations are given separately. See ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION and the articles listed therein. See also ABSORPTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION), DIFFRACTION, INTERFERENCE OF WAVES, OPTICS, PHOTOCHEMISTRY, PHOTOSYNTHESIS, POLARIZED LIGHT, RAMAN EFFECT, REFLECTION (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION), REFRACTION OF WAVES, SCATTERING (ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION), SPECTROSCOPY.

#### NATURE OF LIGHT

Early in the eighteenth century light was generally believed to consist of tiny particles. Of the phenomena mentioned in the preceding section—reflection, refraction, and the sharp shadows caused by the straight path of light—were well known, and the characteristic of finite velocity was suspected. All of these phenomena except refraction clearly could be expected of streams of particles. And Sir Isaac Newton showed that refraction would occur if the velocity of light increased with the density of the medium through which it traveled.

This theory of the nature of light seemed to be completely upset, however, in the first half of the nineteenth century. During that time Thomas Young studied the phenomena of interference, and could see no way to account for them unless light were a wave motion. Diffraction and polarization had also been investigated by that time. Both were easily understandable on the basis of a wave theory of light, and diffraction eliminated the sharp shadow argument for particles. Reflection and finite velocity were consistent with either picture. The final blow to the particle theory seemed to have been struck in 1849 when the speed of light was measured in different media and found to vary in just the opposite manner to that assumed by Newton. Therefore in 1850 it seemed finally to be settled that light consisted of waves.

Even then, however, there was the problem of the medium in which light waves traveled. All other kind of waves required a physical medium, but light traveled through a vacuum—faster in fact than through air or water. The term ether was proposed by James Clerk Maxwell and his contemporaries as a name for the unknown medium, but this

scarcely solved the problem because no ether was ever actually found (see ETHER HYPOTHESIS). Near the beginning of the twentieth century, certain work on the emission and absorption of energy that seemed to be understandable on one assumed light to have a particle or corpuscular nature. The external photoelectric effect, the emission of electrons from the surfaces of metals when light is incident on the surface, was one of these. At that time then, science found itself in an uncomfortable position of knowing a considerable number of experimental facts about light of which some were understandable regardless of whether light consisted of waves or particles. It appeared to make sense only if light were waves, and still others seemed to require it to have a particle nature.

#### THEORY OF LIGHT

The study of light deals with some of the fundamental properties of the physical world. It is intimately linked with the study of the properties of submicroscopic particles on the one hand, with the properties of the entire universe on the other. The creation of electromagnetic radiation from matter and the creation of matter from radiation, both of which have been achieved, provide fascinating insight into the unity of physics. The same is true of the deflection of light beams in strong gravitational fields, such as the bending of starlight passing near the sun.

A classification of phenomena in light according to their theoretical interpretation provides the clearest insight into the nature of light. When a detailed accounting of experimental results is required, two groups of theories appear. In the majority of cases, accounts separately for the wave and the corpuscular character of light. Quantum theories seem to solve questions concerning this dual character of light, and make classical wave theory and the simple corpuscular theory appear as two very useful limiting theories. It happens that the wave theories of light can deal with a considerable part of the phenomena involving electromagnetic radiation. Certain optics based on the wave theory of light can explain many of the more common problems of the propagation of light, such as refraction, provided that limitations of the underlying theory are not disregarded. See OPTICS, GEOMETRICAL.

Phenomena involving light may be classified into three groups: electromagnetic waves, phenomena of corpuscular or quantum phenomena, and relativistic effects. The relativistic effect appears to influence similarly the observation of both corpuscular and wave phenomena. The major developments in the theory of light, to be parallel to the modern physics. The developments are shown in Fig. 1 and are discussed in the remainder of this article.

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tions using the relation  $c = \text{distance/time}$  and (2) phase velocity or wave velocity determinations using  $c = \text{frequency/wavelength}$ .

The group velocity is the average time for a light signal that is a modulated electromagnetic wave train to traverse a given distance (see GROUP VELOCITY). Rømer's original determination of the velocity of light was based on careful observations of the time of eclipse of the moons of Jupiter from various points in the earth's orbit. Subsequent terrestrial determinations making use of revolving mirrors (J. L. Foucault and A. A. Michelson) a toothed wheel (H. L. Fizeau) or an electronically modulated light beam (E. Bergstrand) all measured the time required for light to traverse the distance between a source and a reflecting mirror. These are all group velocity measurements and furnish a value of  $c$  only if the experiments are carried out in a nondispersive medium in which the velocity is the same for all wavelengths. Otherwise the group velocity is smaller than the phase velocity by 0.007% (2.2 km/sec) in air, 15% in water and 2.4% in ordinary crown glass. See DISPERSION (RADIATION).

Determinations of the phase velocity which is simply the speed of the wavefront (see PHASE VELOCITY) are indirect and make the assumption that  $c = \lambda f$  where  $f$  is the frequency and  $\lambda$  the free space wavelength of the electromagnetic radiation. Most of the measurements of this type involve microwave interference in various forms. E. F. Florman with two sources, K. D. Froome in an apparatus similar to a Michelson interferometer, L. Esen, J. P. Gordon and H. M. Smith in a microwave resonance cavity, D. H. Rank and also E. K. Plyer determined  $c$  by calculation from microwave and infrared spectroscopic measurements of the ratio of cycles per second to waves per centimeter for a certain molecular rotation frequency. The phase velocity can also be calculated from the ratio of electromagnetic to electrostatic unit. A detailed description of these experiments is found in the bibliographical references.

The measured magnitudes of the velocity of transmission and the phase velocity seem to be in reasonably good agreement among themselves, possibly to a few parts in  $10^5$ . However the experimental values determined by the two methods are at an admitted and disturbing variance with one another. The velocity of light is not as constant as it is sometimes thought to be. While according to the theory of special relativity the velocity of light will be the same in any frame of reference independent of its state of motion, this is true only for frames of the same gravitational potential. Conceivably local variations of the gravitational potential could lead to variations of the measured velocity of light although experiments for detecting the variations remain to be devised. The effect of the gravitational potential at the sun's surface or at other points in the universe is quite appreciable compared with the precision of many measurements of  $c$ . See POTENTIALS (PHYSICS).

**Electromagnetic wave propagation** Electromagnetic waves can be propagated through free space devoid of matter and fields and with a constant gravitational potential through space with a varying gravitational potential and through more or less absorbing material media which may be solids, liquid or gas. Radiation can be transmitted through wave guides with cylindrical, rectangular or other boundaries the insides of which can be either evacuated or filled with a dielectric medium. See WAVE GUIDE.

From electromagnetic theory and especially from the well known equation formulated by Maxwell a plane wave disturbance of a single frequency  $f$  is propagated in the  $x$  direction with a phase velocity  $v = \lambda f = \lambda \omega / 2\pi$  where  $\omega = 2\pi f$ . The wave can be described by the equation  $y = A \cos (\omega t - x/v)$ . Two disturbances of same amplitude  $A$  of respective angular frequencies  $\omega_1$  and  $\omega_2$  and of velocities  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  propagated in the same direction yield the resulting disturbance  $y'$

$$y' = y_1 + y_2 = 2A \cos \frac{1}{2}(\Delta \omega)t - x \Delta(1/v) \cos (\omega t - \omega x/v)$$

Here  $\Delta \omega = \omega_1 - \omega_2$  and  $\omega = \frac{1}{2}(\omega_1 + \omega_2)$ . The ratio  $u = \Delta \omega / \Delta(1/v)$  is defined as the group velocity just as the ratio  $v = \omega / (1/v)$  is identical with the phase velocity. In the limit for small  $\Delta \omega$ ,  $u = d\omega / d(1/v)$ . Noting that  $\omega = 2\pi c / \lambda$ ,  $d\omega = -2\pi c (d\lambda / \lambda^2)$  and  $d(1/v) = -d\lambda / \lambda v$ , an important relation between group and phase velocity is obtained

$$u = v - \lambda dv/d\lambda$$

This shows that the group velocity  $u$  is different from the phase velocity  $v$  in a medium with dispersion  $dv/d\lambda$ . In vacuo  $u = v = c$ . With the help of Fourier theorems the preceding expression for  $u$  can be shown to apply to the propagation of a wave group of infinite length but with frequencies extending over a finite small domain. Furthermore, even if the wave train were emitted with an infinite length modulation or chopping would result in a degrading of the monochromaticity by introduction of new frequencies and hence in the appearance of a group velocity. Considerations of this nature are not trivial in measurements of the velocity of light but are quite fundamental to the conversion of instrumental readings to a value of  $c$ . Similar considerations apply to the incorporation of the effects of the medium and the boundaries involved in the experiments. Complications arise in the regions of anomalous dispersion (absorption regions) where the phase velocity can exceed  $c$  and  $dv/d\lambda$  is positive. See MAXWELL EQUATIONS, WAVE EQUATION, WAVE MOTION.

**Refractive index** A plane wave front in going from a medium in which its phase velocity is  $v_1$  into a second medium where the velocity is  $v_2$  changes direction at the interface. By geometry it can be shown that in refraction  $\sin i / \sin r = v_1 / v_2$  where  $i$  and  $r$  are the angle which the light path forms with a normal to the interface in the two media.

and the classic velocity addition theorem (which, as it now works, does not apply to light) is thereby different from the old but detected in derivation from the same premises. The only way the earth moves in a straight line is that it is at rest with the galaxy. The rotation toward Cygnus with a velocity of several hundred kilometers per second is the local spiral galaxy. Speed of hundred and possibly thousands of kilometers per second should be determined by measurements in two different directions assuming of course that the earth is at rest with respect to the spiral process. The results have a pace has the physical meaning attributed to it. The unperceived result of the experiment is that the velocity difference could be determined, that is, or at least it could be determined by the same means.

The Michelson-Morley experiment (Fig. 3) is a horizontal Michelson interferometer in which the two arms are at right angles (see INTERFERENCE). The mirror is adjusted so that the normal light of the light source is the same as the moving light source. This demonstrates the equality of optical phase, and the effect is an equality of the times taken by the light beams to travel the same distance. Rotating the interferometer by 90 degrees and again observing the same effect of the experiment at right angles to the same effect of the central wavelength of the light source. The time required by the light to travel the same distance is the same as the time required by the light to travel the same distance. The time required by the light to travel the same distance is the same as the time required by the light to travel the same distance.

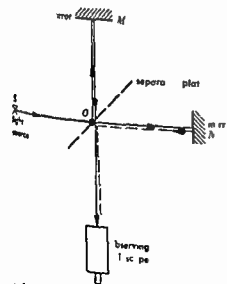


Fig. 3 Michelson-Morley experiment

the light travels in the direction of the light source. If the light source is moving back and forth, then the corresponding arm would have to be longer so as to make the time of travel equal in both arms. If the apparatus were turned through 90 degrees, the horizontal arm would take the place of the longer one, and the faster light would now travel in the shorter arm, and the slower light in the longer arm, a noticeable difference in displacement would be observed, but actually does not take place.

Einstein's theory accounts for this result by the simple explanation that no relative motion between the apparatus and the observer exists in the experiment. No change in the length of the path of the light in the direction of the beam would be perceived. The path of the light is the same as the path of the light, and the path of the light is the same as the path of the light.

**Galactic redshifts** Two different kinds of light or displacement of spectral lines toward the red end of the spectrum are observed in spectroscopic measurements with astronomical objects. One is the redshift of the light from nebulae, and the other is the redshift of the light from stars. The redshift of the light from nebulae is the redshift of the light from the stars. The redshift of the light from the stars is the redshift of the light from the stars. The redshift of the light from the stars is the redshift of the light from the stars.

The most famous example of the galactic redshift is the observed in the spectrum of the so-called Cepheid variable in the constellation Cepheus. The Cepheid variable is a star that pulsates, and its pulsations are used to measure its distance. The Cepheid variable is a star that pulsates, and its pulsations are used to measure its distance.

In 1844, the British astronomer William B. A. Fraunhofer discovered that the light from the stars is shifted toward the red end of the spectrum. This was the first observation of the redshift of the light from the stars. The redshift of the light from the stars is the redshift of the light from the stars. The redshift of the light from the stars is the redshift of the light from the stars.

The observed redshifts of the light from the stars are the result of the Doppler effect. The Doppler effect is the change in frequency of a wave as the source and the observer move relative to each other. The Doppler effect is the change in frequency of a wave as the source and the observer move relative to each other.

The Doppler effect is the change in frequency of a wave as the source and the observer move relative to each other. The Doppler effect is the change in frequency of a wave as the source and the observer move relative to each other. The Doppler effect is the change in frequency of a wave as the source and the observer move relative to each other. The Doppler effect is the change in frequency of a wave as the source and the observer move relative to each other.

$$\Delta \lambda / \lambda = 1.7 \times 10^{-4}$$



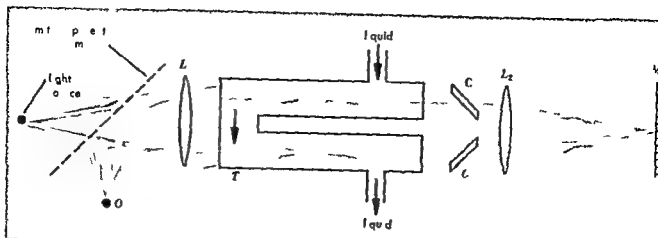


Fig 2 Fizeau's experiment to compare the speed of light in water moving and stationary. M mirror,  $L_1$ ,  $L_2$  lenses, T tube, O location of interference fringes.

rather is a description of the probability of occurrence in a given region of a given interaction or observation. See HAMILTON'S EQUATIONS OF MOTION, QUANTUM ELECTRODYNAMICS, QUANTUM FIELD THEORY, QUANTUM MECHANICS, QUANTUM THEORY, NONRELATIVISTIC QUANTUM THEORY, RELATIVISTIC UNCERTAINTY PRINCIPLE.

**Relativistic effects.** The measured magnitudes of such characteristics as wavelength and frequency, velocity, and the direction of the radiation in a light beam are affected by a relative motion of the source with respect to the observer occurring during the emission of the signal carrying electromagnetic wave trains (see DOPPLER EFFECT). A difference in gravitational potential also affects these quantities. Several important observations of this nature are listed in this section, followed by a discussion of several important results of general relativity theory involving light. For extended discussions of both the special and the general theories of relativity, see RELATIVITY.

**Velocity in moving media.** In 1818 A. Fresnel suggested that it should be possible to determine the velocity of light in a moving medium, for example, to determine the velocity of a beam of light traversing a column of liquid of length  $d$  and of refractive index  $n$  flowing with a velocity  $v$  relative to the observer, by measuring the optical thickness  $\tau$ . The experiment was carried out by Fizeau in a modified Rayleigh interferometer shown in Fig 2 by measuring the fringe displacement in  $O$  corresponding to the reversing of the direction of flow. If  $v'$  is the phase velocity of light in the medium (deduced from the refractive index by the relation  $v' = c/n$ ), it is found that the measured velocity  $v_m$  in the moving medium can be expressed as  $v_m = v' + v(1 - 1/n^2)$  rather than  $v_m = v' + v$  as would be the case with a Newtonian velocity addition.

**Aberration of light.** J. Bradley discovered in 1725 a yearly variation in the angular position of stars, the total variation being 41 sec of arc. This effect is in addition to the well-known parallax effect and was properly ascribed to the combination

of the velocity of the earth in its orbit and the speed of light. Bradley used the amplitude of the variation to arrive at a value of the velocity of light. Sir George Airy compared the angle of aberration in a telescope before and after filling it with water and found contrary to his expectation that there was no difference in angle. See ABERRATION OF LIGHT.

**Michelson-Morley experiment.** The famous Michelson-Morley experiment, one of the most significant experiments of all time, was performed in 1887 to measure the relative velocity of the earth through inertial space. Inertial space is space in which Newton's laws of motion hold. Dynamically, an inertial frame of reference is one in which the observed accelerations are zero if no forces act. A point in an orbit is the center of such a frame. See FRAME OF REFERENCE.

The rotation of the earth about its axis, with tangential velocities never exceeding 0.5 km/sec, is easily demonstrated mechanically (Foucault pendulum, precession of gyroscopes) and optically (Michelson's rectangular interferometer). The surface of the earth is not an inertial frame. In its orbit around the sun, on the other hand, the earth has translational velocities of the order of 30 km/sec, but this motion cannot be detected by mechanical experiments because of its orbital nature (see EARTH (ORBITAL MOTION)). The hypothesis that optical experiments would permit the detection (and measurement) of the relative motion of the earth through inertial space by comparing the time of travel of two light beams, one traveling in the direction of the translation through inertial space and the other at right angle to it. The hope was based on the Newtonian proposition that the velocity of a light beam would be equal to the constant  $c$  only when measured with respect to the inertial space, but would be measured as smaller ( $c - v$ ) or greater ( $c + v$ ) with respect to a reference frame in which the earth is moving with a velocity  $v$  in inertial space. If a light beam were projected respectively in the line of motion and in the opposite direction of translation in the inertial frame,



where  $d$  is in parsecs ( $1 \text{ parsec} = 3 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}$ ) Red shifts in nebulae up to  $11 \times 10^9$  light years distant have been measured in a comprehensive program carried out at the Mount Wilson Observatory by E. G. Hubble and M. L. Humason. See EINSTEIN SHIFT RED SHIFT

**Results of general relativity** The propagation of light is influenced by gravitation. This is one of the fundamental results of Einstein's general theory of relativity which has been subjected to experimental tests and found to be verified. Three important results involving light need to be singled out.

1 The velocity of light measured by the same magnitude  $c$  independently of the state of motion of the frame in which the measurement is being carried out depends on the gravitational potential  $\Phi$  of the field in which it is being measured according to the equation

$$c = c_0 \left( 1 + \frac{\Phi}{c^2} \right)$$

Here  $\Phi = -GM/R$  where  $G$  is the universal constant of gravitation ( $6.670 \times 10^{-8}$  cgs units)  $M$  the mass of the celestial body in grams  $R$  the radius of the body in centimeters and  $c_0$  the velocity of light in a vacuum devoid of fields.

For example the absolute value of the term  $\Phi/c^2$  is about 3000 times greater on the sun than on earth making the measurements of  $c$  smaller by two parts in  $10^6$  on the sun as compared to measurements on earth.

2 The frequency of light emitted from a source in a gravitational field with the gravitational potential  $\Phi$  is different from the frequency  $\nu_0$  emitted by an identical source (atomic nuclear molecular) in a field free region according to the equation

$$\nu = \nu_0 \left( 1 + \frac{\Phi}{c^2} \right)$$

Spectral lines in sunlight should be displaced toward the red by two parts in  $10^6$  when compared to light from terrestrial sources.

3 Light rays are deflected when passing near a heavenly body according to the equation

$$\alpha = \frac{4GM}{c^2 R}$$

where  $\alpha$  is the angular deflection in radians and  $R$  the distance of the beam from the center of the heavenly body of mass  $M$ . The deflection is directed so as to increase the apparent angular distance of a star from the center of the sun when starlight is passing near the edge of the sun. The deflection according to this equation should be 1.75 sec of arc  $\approx$  value which compares favorably with eclipse measurements of the star field around the sun in 1931. The measurements indicated values up to 2.2 sec of arc when compared with photographs of the same field 6 months earlier. This most sensational prediction of Einstein's theory might seem like surpri

character of light is widely known and when a Newtonian  $M/R^2$  attraction might be considered to be involved in the motion of a corpuscle with the velocity  $c$  past the sun. However application of Newton's law predicts a deviation only half as great as the reasonably well verified relativistic prediction.

**Matter and radiation** The possibility of creating a pair of electrons—a positively charged one (positron) and a negatively charged one (negatron)—by a rapidly varying electromagnetic field ( $\gamma$  rays of high frequency) was predicted as a consequence of Dirac's wave equation for a free electron and has been experimentally verified by Curie and F. Joliot as well as J. Chadwick, P. M. S. Blackett, G. P. Occhialini and others have compared the number of positrons and negatrons ejected by  $\gamma$  rays passing through a thin sheet of lead (and other materials) and have found them to be the same after accounting for two other groups of electrons also appearing in the experiment (photoelectrons and recoil electrons). Other examples of negatron-positron pair production include the collision of two heavy particles, a fast electron passing through the field of a nucleus, the direct collision of two electrons, the collision of two light quanta in vacuo and the action of a nuclear clear field on a  $\gamma$  ray emitted by the nucleus involved in the action.

Evidence of the creation of matter from radiation as well as that of radiation from matter substantiates Einstein's equation

$$E = mc^2$$

which was first expressed in the following way: If a body [of mass  $m$ ] gives off the energy  $E$ , the form of radiation, its mass diminishes by  $E/c^2$ .

In regard to exchanges of energy and momentum electromagnetic waves behave like a group of particles of energy

$$E = mc^2 = h\nu$$

and momentum  $p = h\nu/c = h/\lambda$

Finally many experiments with photons indicate that they also possess an intrinsic angular momentum as do particles. Circularly polarized light, for example, carries an experimentally observable angular momentum and it can be shown that under certain circumstances an angular momentum is imparted to unpolarized or plane polarized light (plane wave passing through a finite circular aperture). In any case the angular momentum will be quantized in units of  $h/2\pi$ .

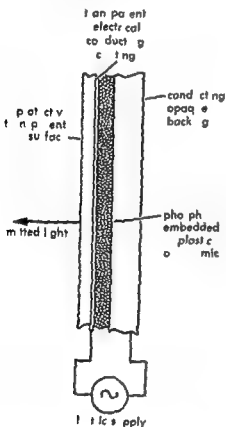
The inverse process to the creation of electron pairs is the annihilation of a positron and a negatron resulting in the production of two  $\gamma$  quanta (two quantum annihilation). Nuclear reactions are known to involve similar processes. See CHAIN REACTION NUCLEAR ELEMENTARY PARTICLES INFINTY ENERGY PAIR PRODUCTION (ELECTRON POSITRON)

**Unified field theories** In conclusion one might mention the so-called unified field theories. The



In contrast to incandescent vapor discharge and fluorescent lamps which are essentially point or line sources of light the electroluminescent light panel is essentially a surface source of light. Complete freedom of size and shape is a fascinating aspect of luminescent cells.

Brightness of the panel depends upon the voltage applied to the phosphor layer and upon the electrical frequency. In general higher voltage and higher frequency both result in a brighter panel. Blue green red or yellow light can be produced by the choice of phosphor and the proper blend of the colors produces white light. Color can be varied for a particular phosphor by changing the frequency of the applied voltage. Increasing the frequency shifts the color toward the blue end of the spectrum.



Simplified sketch of an electroluminescent cell (not to scale)

The efficiency of the light panels is only a fraction of that of the most efficient fluorescent lamps. Theoretical limits indicate however that the efficiency can be further improved probably to exceed that for fluorescent lamp. Because panel lights employ no filaments and no evacuated or gas-filled bulbs replacement of units is virtually eliminated. Glareless uniform distribution of light from large area sources is possible without shade or other control devices. See ILLUMINATION [WBB]

## Lighthouse

A distinctive structure built on or near a shore which exhibits a light of distinctive characteristic to serve as an aid to navigation. Letter light may



Lighthouse on a coastal headland (U.S. Coast Guard)

be displayed from fixed structures called beacons or from floating buoys or lightships.

The characteristics of the lights displayed by lighthouses are given in light lists available to mariners and in abbreviated form on charts. Some lights have one or more sectors in which the light appears red, usually to warn of some danger in this sector. In other sectors most lights are white.

Lighthouses have been diverse in structure and type of light. Towers up to 200 ft were constructed along the Mediterranean coast of Egypt many centuries before Christ with beacon fires maintained by priests. Logs, coal, oil, gas, and finally electricity have been used to provide lights. An attendant is continuously on duty at many light houses but some are unattended and some recent installations are controlled remotely from a convenient location. See PILOTAGE [ABM]

Bibliography: U.S. Coast Guard *Aids to Navigation Manual* CG 22<sup>nd</sup> 1950. N.B. *Watch American Practical Navigator*. U.S. Navy Hydrographic Office H O 9 1958.

## Lighthouse tube

A special type of triode developed to operate at very high frequencies. A limitation of conventional tubes for operation at high frequencies occurs because of considerable circuit impedance associated with the wire leads that are attached to the electrodes. The wires individually have considerable self-inductance and there is also considerable stray capacity between them. In addition the most efficient circuits for operation at the ultra-high frequencies are cavity rather than lumped cir-

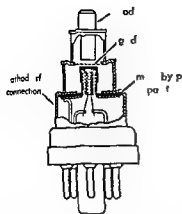


Fig. 1. Length set b t w y d w g (K R)  
Spannenb g V m T b M G w-H II 1948)

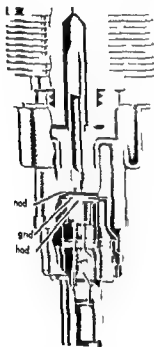


Fig 2. Med msp w highth : b with pl t :  
large nd. (G 1 E 1 )

[illegible]

A late form of tube shown in Fig 11. In this tube the anode is at the base of the lighthouse and the cathode is at the mild anode end which is just opposite to the situation on the previous figure. By this means the heat dissipation capacity of the anode is increased. The tube shown is a ceramic rather than glass, and is between the diodes connected to the electrodes. This provides a metal ceramic envelope which is naturally merged with the glass. Metal ceramic tubes are capable of operation at high temperature and therefore have a greater duty and power capacity for a given size. See VACUUM TUBE [188]

## Lightning

The light produced by an abrupt discontinuous discharge of electricity through the generally under turbulent conditions of the atmosphere

Cumulus clouds which produce lightning  
tend to rise upward more and frequently  
to the altitude of 40,000 ft. Within  
the clouds various factors act to the re-  
tardation and separation of electrical charge. Con-  
flicting theories have been proposed to explain the elec-  
trification of clouds. However, they all lead to the same  
conclusion: positive charges tend to collect at the same  
charge density at the upper part of the  
cumulus clouds, while negative charges tend to  
collect at the lower parts of the clouds. In  
some clouds after a high firm cloud mass has  
discharged, it is found that the lower part of the  
cloud

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It has been thought that light gets to  
 ground is tested by a telescope. A  
 electric smoke detector about 50 m in about 1  
 meter distance top. After passing the  
 other stoppage place. The equipment  
 repeated until the leader has the ground. When  
 the outer surface of the gem is polished up the  
 path taken by the telescope. When the  
 pedestal is placed in the side of the  
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The first three strokes represent an average isotonic muscle contraction.

quently exceeding 30 000 amp but sometimes as high as 200 000 amp. It decreases to about one half the maximum value in an average of about 24  $\mu$  sec. Average currents during the strokes are of the order of 10 000 amp and about 500 amp may flow through the ionized channel in the interval between strokes. A reasonable estimate of the diameter of the channel appears to be about 10 cm. The high currents lead to thunder and are mainly responsible for the damage caused by lightning.

See ATMOSPHERIC ELECTRICITY CLOUD PHYSICS  
TERRESTRIAL ELECTRICITY THUNDERSTORM

[L J B]

## Lightning and surge protection

Means of protecting electrical systems, buildings and other property from lightning and other high voltage surges.

The destructive effects of natural lightning are well known. Studies of lightning and means of either preventing its striking an object or passing the stroke harmlessly to ground have been going on since the days when Franklin first established that lightning is electricity (see ATMOSPHERIC ELECTRICITY LIGHTNING). From these studies two conclusions emerge: (1) lightning will not strike an object if it is placed in a grounded metal cage and (2) lightning tends to strike in general the highest objects on the horizon.



Fig 1 Installation of lightning rod on a home

One practical approximation of the grounded metal cage is the well known lightning rod or mast (Fig 1). The effectiveness of this device is evaluated on the cone of protection principle. The protected area is the space enclosed by a cone having the mast top as the apex of the cone and tapering out to the base. Laboratory tests and field experience have shown that if the radius of the base of the cone is equal to the height of the mast, equipment inside this cone will rarely be struck. A radius equal to twice the height of the mast gives a cone of shielding within which a hit will occasionally occur. The cone of protection principle is illustrated in Fig 2. See LIGHTNING ROD.

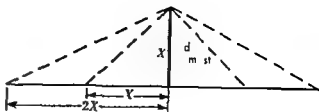


Fig 2 Cone of protection of a lightning rod or mast

A building which stands alone, like the Empire State in New York City, is struck many times by lightning during a season. It is protected with a mast and the strokes are passed harmlessly to ground. It is interesting to note, however, that lightning has been observed to strike part way down the side of this building (Fig 3). This shows that lightning does not always follow the paths prescribed for it by man but will occasionally dodge the protective devices provided.

The probability that a building will be struck by lightning is considerably less if the building is located in a valley. Therefore electric transmission lines which must cross mountain ranges usually will be routed through the gaps to avoid the direct exposure of the ridges.

Overhead lines of electric power companies are vulnerable to lightning. Lightning appears on the lines as a transient voltage which if of sufficient magnitude will either flash over or puncture the weakest point in the system insulation.



Fig 3 A multiple lightning stroke to Empire State Building during July 1936. B single continuing lightning stroke to Empire State Building Aug 24 1936.

Many of the troubles that cause service interruption on electrical systems are the result of failures of insulation. No permanent damage has been done at the point of failure, and service can be restored as soon as the cause of the trouble has disappeared. A puncture of the insulation on the other hand, requires repair work and damaged apparatus must be removed from service.

There are a number of protective devices to limit the extent of lightning damage to electric power system equipment. The word protection is used to connote the one or two functions of the prevention of trouble in the limitation of the effect of various protective measures. It has been devised to stop or prevent lightning from entering the system and to dissipate its energy harmlessly.

Overhead ground wires and lightning rods. These devices are used to prevent lightning from striking the electrical system.

The grounded metal-cage principle applied to overhead ground wires, preferably two in number over the transmission phase conductor and grounded at intervals. The ground wire must be properly located with respect to the phase con-

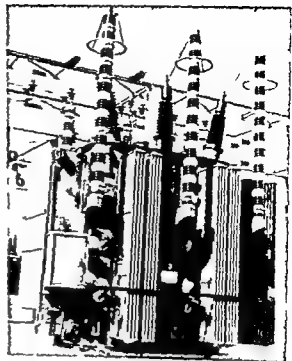


Fig 5. Installation of the General Electric Company's 121 kv line-to-ground protection system for 20 000 kv transmission.

ductor and have adequate clearance from them both at the tower and throughout the span. If tower footing resistance is too high they must be lowered to acceptable values with drilled rods with buried counterpoises. The lightning stroke current must have a specific low impedance path to ground so that the lightning also follows this path through the high resistance to the line conductors (Fig 4).

The ground wires are often brought in on the transmission towers. For additional shielding of the substation lightning rods are installed. Several rods are usually used to obtain the desired protection.

**Lightning arresters.** These protective devices reduce the transient overvoltage level to a compatible value with the insulation. They are connected in parallel with the equipment to be protected. One end of the arrester is grounded and the other end is connected to the electrical conductor (Fig 5).

A line-type arrester provides a relatively low discharge path to ground for the transient overvoltage and a relatively high resistance to the system during normal operation so that the arrester does not use system horsepower.

In selecting an arrester to protect a transmission line, the arrester must be installed at the proper locations and must be coordinated with the lightning protection system. The arrester must be properly located with respect to the lightning protection system and the lightning protection system must be properly designed.

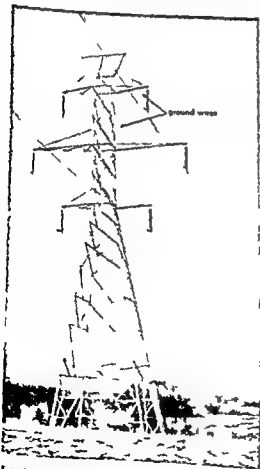


Fig 4. Double suspension tower of the Ohio Gooding Co. 345 kv transmission line with two ground wires. (Courtesy of the American Electric Power Co.)



ages on various magnitudes of discharge currents arrester lead lengths and other factors must all be evaluated See LIGHTNING ARRESTER

**Rod gaps** These also are devices for limiting the magnitude of the transient overvoltages. They usually are formed of two  $\frac{1}{2}$ -in square rods one of which is grounded and the other connected to the line conductor. They have no inherent arc quenching ability and every operation is usually associated with a system outage.

These devices are applied on the principle that if an occasional flashover is to occur in a station it is best to predetermine the point of flashover so that it will be away from any apparatus that might otherwise be damaged by the attendant short circuit current.

The flashover characteristics of rod gaps are such that they turn up much faster on steep wave-front surges than the withstand voltage characteristics of apparatus with the result that if a gap is set to give a reasonable margin of protection on slow wave front surges there may be little or no protection for steep wave front surges. Also the gap characteristics may be adversely affected by weather.

Rod gaps will limit transient overvoltages. They have no inherent arc quenching ability and once becoming conducting they continue to arc until the system voltage is removed. Since each operation is a system outage they should not be considered an arrester.

**Immediate reclosure** This is a practice for restoring service after the trouble occurs by immediately reclosing automatically the line power circuit breakers after they have been tripped by a short circuit. The protective devices involved are the power circuit breaker and the fault detecting and reclosing relays.

This practice is successful because the majority of the short circuits on overhead lines are the result of flashovers of insulators and there is no permanent damage at the point of fault. The fault may be either line to ground or between phases. Reclosing relays are available to reenergize the line only once or three times with adjustable time intervals between reclosures.

If the relays go through the full sequence of reclosing and the fault has not cleared they lock out. If the fault has cleared after a reclosure the relays return to normal.

Permanent faults must always be located and removed from a system and the accepted electric protective devices are power circuit breaker and suitable protective relays. See CIRCUIT TESTING ELECTRICAL ELECTRIC PROTECTIVE DEVICES

[E M H]

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## Lightning arrester

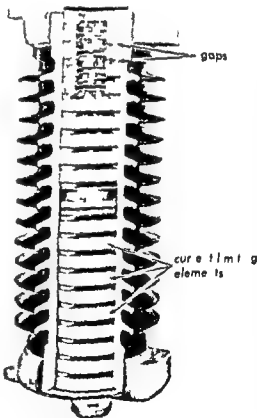
A protective device designed primarily for connection between a conductor of an electrical system and ground to limit the magnitude of transient overvoltages on equipment.

The valve arrester consists of a single gap or multiple gaps in series with a current limiting element. The gaps between spaced electrodes prevent the flow of current through the arrester except when the voltage across them exceeds the critical gap flashover. They reseal when the voltage returns to normal. The current limiting (valve) element reduces the current flowing through the arrester and aids the gaps to reseal.

The current limiting element is a nonlinear resistor whose resistance decreases substantially as the voltage across it increases.

Other types of arresters called expulsion arresters have spaced electrodes in an interrupting chamber which contains gas evolving material.

System overvoltages may be of either external or internal origin that a lightning or switching. The arrester is unable to determine the origin of the overvoltage and must attempt to limit the magnitude of all abnormal voltages above the gap spark over voltage. Hence a lightning arrester is really a voltage surge arrester.



Thyrek (gap spark) Itge) Thy le m g 1  
t t -class light g arrest r ted 60 kv d ch g  
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## Lignumvitae

A tree *Guaiacum sanctum* also known as holywood *lignumvitae* which is cultivated to some extent in southern California and tropical Florida. *Lignumvitae* is native in the Florida keys Bahamas West Indies and Central and South America. It is an evergreen tree of medium size with abruptly pinnate leaves. The tree yields a resin or gum known as gum guaiac or resin of guaiac which is used in medicine. The very heavy black heartwood is used in bowling balls blocks and pulleys and parts of instruments. Other species include *G. coulteri*, *G. guatemalense* and *G. officinale*. See FORREST AND FORESTRY TREE [A H G]

## Liliales

A large and important order of the plant subclass Monocotyledoneae arranged in 7 families with 427 genera and approximately 8000 species. The flower parts occur mainly in 3s or multiples of 3 and the endosperm is fleshy. One half the genera and species belong to the lily family (Liliaceae) of the warm temperate and tropical regions—the most representative monocot family. Members of this family supply food (including asparagus onions and garlic) fiber and drugs many are prized as ornamentals.

*Colchicum autumnale* or meadow saffron yields colchicine an important alkaloid drug. Other families of this order are the rush family (Juncaceae) the bloodwort family the yam family (Dioscoreaceae) a valuable food producing group the tree lily family with two genera of tropical plants the amaryllis family (Amaryllidaceae) with many ornamentals several species of *Agave* valued as a source of fiber and pulque a popular Mexican drink and the iris family (Iridaceae) with many ornamentals such as iris gladiolus and *Crocus*. *Crocus sativus* or saffron yields an important yellow dye used as a flavoring material and a coloring in medicines and food. *Sarsaparilla* a flavoring material is obtained from the roots of at least four species of the genus *Smilax*. See ASPARAGUS COLCHICINE GARLIC ONION SAFFRON SARSAPARILLA SISAL see also EMBRYOPHYTES MONOCOTYLEDONEAE PLANT KINGDOM [P D S]

## Limbargite

A dark glass rich igneous rock with abundant large crystals (phenocrysts) of olivine and pyroxene and with little or no feldspar.

The glass is brown and usually alkali rich. Phenocrysts are well formed and the pyroxene shows zonal structure (diopside cores and titanium rich margins). Small quantities of feldspathoid hornblende and biotite may be present. Granules of titanium iron oxide are abundant and wide spread.

Limbargite is a rare rock and forms lava flows and small intrusive bodies (dikes sills and plugs). It is associated with basanite and alkali basaltic rocks. It probably originates from basaltic magmas and lavas by accumulation of olivine and pyroxene

crystals under the influence of gravity. Thus limbargite may grade through oceanite to basalt. See BASALT IGNEOUS ROCKS [C A C A]

## Lime (botanical)

An acid citrus fruit *Citrus aurantifolia* usually grown in tropical regions because of its low cold resistance. The two principal groups of limes are the West Indian or Mexican and the Tahiti. The West Indian lime is a small tree with irregular branches having short stiff sharp spines. The fruit is small (walnut sized) and strongly acid. It is more sensitive to cold than the Tahiti lime which is a more vigorous tree bearing fruits of lemon size.



Acid lime *Citrus aurantifolia* (F. M. L. H. Bailey ed. The Standard Cyclopaedia of Horticulture vol. 2 Macmillan 1937)

In the United States limes are grown commercially in southern Florida the state leading in lime acreage with 8000 acres and also in the warmer areas of southern California. The average annual value of this crop from 1948 to 1958 was \$1,135,500.

Limes are used in frozen sherbets and in beverages such as ades and alcoholic drinks. The juice has many culinary uses such as flavoring in jellies jams marmalades and as garnishing for fish and meats. See FRUIT (BOTANY) FRUIT (TREE) [F E C]

## Lime (industrial)

A general term for the various products of calcined limestone for example quicklime and hydrated lime. Principal uses of lime are in mortar stucco and plaster for the building industry as a flux in the metallurgical industry as a refractory for lining open hearth furnaces as addition to soils either for agricultural purpose or to talisil roadbeds as a chemical raw material in the production of glasses and also in water purification sewage treatment pulp and paper production.



## Lignumvitae

A tree *Guaiacum sanctum* also known as holywood lignumvitae which is cultivated to some extent in southern California and tropical Florida. Lignumvitae is native in the Florida Keys, Bahamas, West Indies and Central and South America. It is an evergreen tree of medium size with abruptly pinnate leaves. The tree yields a resin or gum known as gum guaiac or resin of guaiac which is used in medicine. The very heavy black heartwood is used in bowling balls, blocks and pulleys and parts of instruments. Other species include *G. coulteri*, *G. guatemalense* and *G. officinale*. See FOREST AND FORESTRY TREE [A H G]

## Liliales

A large and important order of the plant subclass Monocotyledoneae arranged in 7 families with 427 genera and approximately 8000 species. The flower parts occur mainly in 3s or multiples of 3 and the endosperm is fleshy. One half the genera and species belong to the lily family (Liliaceae) of the warm temperate and tropical regions—the most representative monocot family. Members of this family supply food (including asparagus, onions and garlic), fiber and drugs; many are prized as ornamentals.

*Colchicum autumnale* or meadow saffron yields colchicine, an important alkaloid drug. Other families of this order are the rush family (Juncaceae), the bloodwort family, the yam family (Dioscoreaceae), a valuable food producing group, the tree lily family with two genera of tropical plants, the amaryllis family (Amaryllidaceae) with many ornamentals, several species of Agave valued as a source of fiber and pulque, a popular Mexican drink, and the iris family (Iridaceae) with many ornamentals such as iris, gladiolus and *Crocus*. *Crocus sativus* or saffron yields an important yellow dye used as a flavoring material and as a coloring in medicines and food. *Sarsaparilla*, a flavoring material, is obtained from the roots of at least four species of the genus *Smilax*. See ASPARAGUS, COLCHICINE, GARLIC, ONION, SAFFRON, SARSAPARILLA. See also EMBRYOPHYTES, MONOCOTYLEDONEAE, PLANT KINGDOM [F D S]

## Limbürgite

A dark glass rich igneous rock with abundant large crystals (phenocrysts) of olivine and pyroxene and with little or no feldspar.

The glass is brown and usually alkali rich. Phenocrysts are well formed and the pyroxene shows zonal structure (diopside cores and titanium rich margins). Small quantities of feldspathoid, hornblende and biotite may be present. Crystals of titanium iron oxide are abundant and widespread.

Limbürgite is a rare rock and forms lava flows and small intrusive bodies (dike, sills and plugs). It is associated with basanite and alkali feldspathic rocks. It probably originates from basaltic magma and lavas by accumulation of olivine and pyroxene

crystals under the influence of gravity. Thus limbürgite may grade through oceanite to basalt. See BASALT, IGNEOUS ROCKS [C A C]

## Lime (botanical)

An acid citrus fruit *Citrus aurantifolia* usually grown in tropical regions because of its low cold resistance. The two principal groups of limes are the West Indian or Mexican and the Tahiti. The West Indian lime is a small tree with irregular branches having short stiff sharp spines. The fruit is small (walnut sized) and strongly acid. It is more sensitive to cold than the Tahiti lime which is a more vigorous tree bearing fruits of lemon size.



Acid lime *Citrus aurantifolia* (From L. H. Bailey and The Standard Cyclopedia of Horticulture, vol. 2 Macmillan, 1937)

In the United States limes are grown commercially in southern Florida, the state leading in lime acreage with 8000 acres, and also in the warmer areas of southern California. The average annual value of this crop from 1948 to 1958 was \$1,135,500.

Limes are used in frozen sherbet and in beverages such as ades and in alcoholic drink. The juice has many culinary uses, such as flavoring in jellies, jams, marmalades, and as garnishing for fish and meats. See FRUIT (BOTANY), FRUIT (TREE) [F F C]

## Lime (industrial)

A general term for the various products of calcined limestone, for example quicklime and hydrated lime. Principal uses of lime are in mortar, stucco, and plaster for the building industry, as a flux in the metallurgical industry, as a refractory for lining open hearth furnaces, as additive to soil, either for agricultural purpose or to stabilize roadbed, as a chemical raw material in the production of glass and also in water purification, sewage treatment, pulp and paper production.

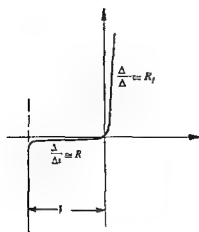


Fig. 1 Voltage-current characteristic of the diode

current characteristic of the diode is shown in Fig. 1. In the first quadrant the characteristic is that of the forward-biased diode. The current may be approximated by the equation  $I = I_0(e^{V/V_T} - 1)$ . This value might range from a few hundred microamperes to several milliamperes for a typical diode. In the third quadrant the characteristic may be approximated by the equation  $I = -I_0 e^{-V/V_T}$ . The characteristic is that of the reverse-biased diode. The current is very small, typically less than a microampere. The current is also dependent on the temperature of the diode. The current increases as the temperature increases. The current is also dependent on the area of the diode junction. The current increases as the area of the junction increases.

The diode is used in many applications. It is used as a rectifier, a switch, a signal diode, and a voltage regulator. It is also used in many other applications.

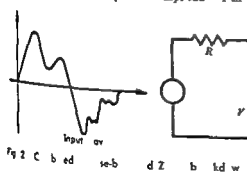


Fig. 2 Circuit diagram and characteristic of a diode in a circuit

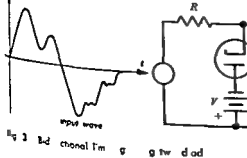


Fig. 3 Load current versus input voltage

the power dissipation is limited by the junction temperature  $T_j$  and the thermal resistance  $R_{th}$ . The power dissipation is limited by the equation  $P = V_f I_f$ , where  $V_f$  is the forward voltage drop and  $I_f$  is the forward current. The power dissipation is also limited by the equation  $P = I_f^2 R_f$ , where  $R_f$  is the forward resistance. The power dissipation is also limited by the equation  $P = V_f^2 / R_f$ , where  $R_f$  is the forward resistance.

The ac model of a diode may be used to analyze the forward and reverse regions of the diode. The ac model consists of a diode in series with a resistor  $R_f$ . The diode is represented by a voltage source  $V_f$  in series with a resistor  $R_f$ . The diode is also represented by a current source  $I_f$  in parallel with a resistor  $R_f$ . The diode is also represented by a voltage source  $V_f$  in parallel with a resistor  $R_f$ .

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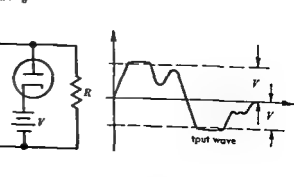
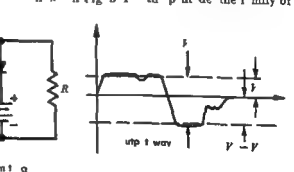


Fig. 4 Circuit diagram and characteristic of a diode in a circuit

intergranular calcite. If the particles are of the same size the rock is termed calcarenite. In general the mechanically deposited limestones show the same kinds of sedimentary structures as do clastic rocks. Cross bedding, stratification, current lineation and even graded bedding may be displayed. Oolitic and pisolitic textures are most abundant in limestones. See OOLITE and PISOLITE.

Secondary textural features that are found in limestones include stylolites (cross cutting veinlets filled with calcite) and replacement effects (typically that of rhombohedron of dolomite replacing calcite). Because the carbonate minerals are relatively soluble in aqueous solutions and because of the transformation of aragonite to calcite and calcite to dolomite recrystallization and other diagenetic effects are particularly common in limestones. See STYLOLITES.

**Classification.** Limestones are divided into two major groups: the autochthonous and allochthonous. The autochthonous limestones have been formed in place by organic or biogenic precipitation from the water of the environment, usually seawater. The allochthonous have been transported from the site of original precipitation by the depositional agent, primarily responsible being current action. The total distance of transport of allochthonous particles may not be great; the transportation is mainly a process of moving a chemical precipitate from one part of a sedimentary basin to another. Carbonate minerals of sand or finer sizes are rarely found in surface streams and rivers; for they are too soluble in water to persist for any distance.

**Autochthonous limestones.** Primary agents in the formation of autochthonous limestones are the lime-secreting organisms. Most important of these are the calcareous algae such as *Lithothamnion* and *Halimeda*, two forms that make up the major part of reef limestones. Foraminifera also contribute large quantities of carbonate. Other groups of carbonate rock-forming invertebrates are mollusks, echinoderms (in particular the crinoids), and corals. Although many reefs are termed coral reefs, quantitatively the corals play a secondary role in carbonate accumulation. See ALGAL FOSSILS.

The most common autochthonous limestone has been called normal marine lime tone. Although whole or silts or parts of them are plentiful, the bulk of the rock may not be recognizable as fossil debris. Much of the now unrecognizable material probably came from calcareous algae or other biogenic carbonate that may have been broken up into very small particles by the action of bottom-dwelling scavengers. Inorganic precipitation may account for some of the fine-grained calcite. The rock is light-colored and normally has moderately well-developed bedding. Dolomitization is common as are chert nodules.

Some limestone formed by the accumulation of organic structures may be either autochthonous or allochthonous. Among the varieties included in this group are (1) biohermal lime tone, (2) biostromal lime tones, and (3) pelagic lime tone.

(1) Biohermal limestones are reefs or reef-like mounds of carbonate that accumulated in much the same fashion as the modern reefs and atolls of the Pacific Ocean. The mounds may range from a few feet up to several thousand feet in diameter and hundreds of feet thick. Some of the best described fossil reefs are those of the Silurian system in Illinois, Indiana, and Wisconsin. The central core of the reef is fossiliferous, dolomitized, and massive. It grades radially outward into sparsely fossiliferous, well-bedded reef flank strata that commonly dip away from the core. Farther away from the core the reef flank beds grade into fine-grained, well-bedded, relatively unfossiliferous normal carbonate inter-reef sediment. See BIOHERM.

(2) Biostromal limestones are biogenic carbonate accumulations that are laterally uniform in thickness, in contrast to the moundlike nature of bioherms. The fossils may be of many different kinds or they may be dominated by a single group. Particularly common are crinoidal and algal biostromes. The algal biostromes may have very few recognizable fossils, but stromatolites and algal laminations are common. Many of the biostromes are of mixed autochthonous and allochthonous origin; for some of the fossil debris shows evidence of transport. See BIOSTROME, STROMATOLITE.

(3) Pelagic limestones are formed from the accumulation of the limy parts of pelagic or floating organisms such as foraminifera. The resulting limestones are fine-grained and contain very few fossils of bottom-dwelling faunas. Since the foraminifera are chiefly responsible for pelagic lime tone, and the lime-secreting pelagic foraminifera did not evolve until the Cretaceous, pelagic lime tones are restricted to Cretaceous and later systems. See FORAMINIFERA FOSSILS.

**Allochthonous limestones.** The allochthonous or transported lime tone shows clastic textures typical of detrital rocks. The elastic particles may be of fossils, as in coquina or coquinoid lime tone, or of inorganically precipitated carbonate particles as in oolite or earlier deposited lime tone.

See CALCARENITE, CHALK, COQUINA, MARL, SEDIMENTARY ROCKS, SEDIMENTATION (GEOLOGY), TRAVERTINE, TUFFA. [R3]

**Bibliography.** 1. Cayeux, Les Roches Sédimentaires de France. Roches Carbonatées, 1935.

## Limiter circuit

An electronic circuit used to prevent the amplitude of an electrical waveform from exceeding a desired level while preserving the shape of the waveform at a level lower than the specified level. Such a limiter may be used to prevent the excursion of a waveform from exceeding a specified level in either the positive or negative going direction or in both simultaneously.

Limiting is usually accomplished by making use of the nonlinear voltage-current relationship in an electronic device. A common circuit arrangement is used as a clamp (see CLAMPING CIRCUIT); often the key element in a limiter circuit is the voltage





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for production of Lakes with poor phytoplankton. The production of organic matter is dependent on the light and certain inorganic and organic substances dissolved in the water or contained in the associated bottom material. These substances include the dissolved carbon dioxide and dissolved solids such as compounds of nitrogen, phosphorus and other elements all of which have an interrelated chemical reaction. The two primary factors of body of water controlling the velocity and limiting the production of aquatic life are the shape, area, and dimensions, bottom types, temperatures, currents, turbidity, amount of light penetration and other physical conditions.

**Factors influencing productivity** The primary factors are the production of aquatic organisms are light and certain inorganic and organic substances dissolved in the water or contained in the associated bottom material. These substances include the dissolved carbon dioxide and dissolved solids such as compounds of nitrogen, phosphorus and other elements all of which have an interrelated chemical reaction. The two primary factors of body of water controlling the velocity and limiting the production of aquatic life are the shape, area, and dimensions, bottom types, temperatures, currents, turbidity, amount of light penetration and other physical conditions.

**Food cycles** The aquatic organisms develop in the same manner as the terrestrial organisms. The plants have the raw nutrient substances and support the animals by a complicated food chain. Definite cycles are maintained between the organisms and the nutrients the chemical elements are converted into biological forms which are decomposed back into the general biological cycle. The whole process is based on the physical

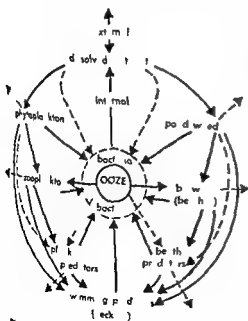


Diagram of food chains showing the flow of energy and matter. The diagram illustrates the flow of energy and matter through various trophic levels, from producers (plants) to consumers (animals), and the recycling of nutrients through decomposition and the soil.

synthesis of all aquatic plants utilizing solar energy received by radiation and is controlled by the various physical factors. The transfer of energy can be traced through the various levels of the food chain.

**General habits of organisms** The aquatic organisms are grouped into various categories according to where they live. The most outstanding groups are the microscopic plants and animals living suspended in the open water, the plankton, the organisms living in or on the bottom, the benthos, the larger free-swimming animals, the nekton, and the rooted plants or pond weeds living in the shallow water.

**Zonation in aquatic habitats** Standing water is divided into zones according to the conditions for life. The littoral zone is the shallow area limited by the depth of sufficient light penetration for growth of rooted plants. The limnetic zone is the open water beyond the littoral zone and is inhabited by plankton and some nekton. The profundal zone exists below the limnetic zone in waters deep enough to develop temperature stratification, which is a part of the year restrict the lower waters from circulating with the upper water. Running waters are divided mainly into zones created by conditions of current and by related bottom types. In fast water (rapids) zones are sluggish water (pool) zones associated with characteristic organisms. See ECOLOGY, FRESH WATER ECOSYSTEM, LAKE, MARINE ECOSYSTEM, OCEANOGRAPHY, PHOTOSYNTHESIS. [S.E.]

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## Limonite

An usually amorphous, soft, brown material consisting in part of the material known as brown iron ore. Limonite occurs in millimetric, stalactitic, and earthy masses. The hardness is 5-5.5 (Mohs scale) and the specific gravity is 3.6-4. The luster is streak and the color is brown to black. Limonite is essentially  $\text{FeO}(\text{OH}) \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  but with admixed hematite, clay, and magnesia. Described by X-ray analysis, however, that the material is formerly thought to be limonite, goethite. Limonite is formed by the oxidation of pyrite, pyrrhotite, and occurs with goethite. It is a pigmented material in yellow, brown, and mixed with fine layers of yellow ochre. S. GOETHITE, IRON (EXTRACTION FROM ORE), ORE AND MINERAL DEPOSITS. [C.S. HU]

## Limpet

Any of over 1,000 species of the Class Gastropoda, phylum Mollusca, which are characterized by a lack of a shell. Two families are generally recognized, the Acanthina and the Velutina, which have a small, peeling, at the apex of the shell or near

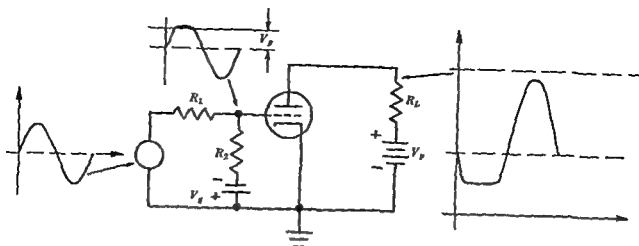


Fig. 4 Grid-current limiting

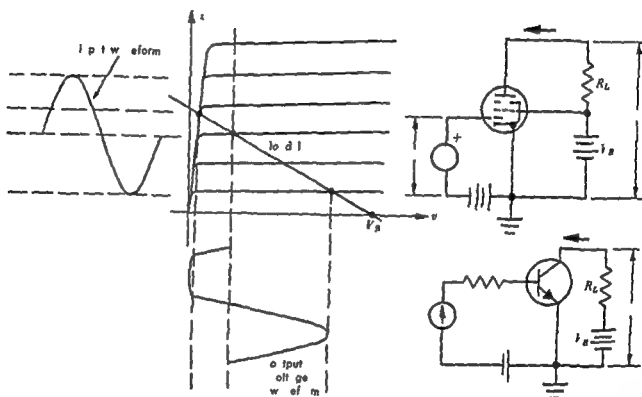


Fig. 5 Output circuit saturation limiting

curves represents plate current as a function of plate voltage for various values of grid voltage for the transistor they are collector current as a function of collector voltage for values of base current (see PENTODE VACUUM TRANSISTOR CONNECTION). Either *n p n* or *p n p* transistors may be used according to the desired polarity of the output waveform. The graphical construction shows the input output transfer characteristic is determined by the input signal swing and the value of the load resistance  $R_L$ . The output is limited by the saturation characteristic.

The term limiter is often defined in sufficiently broad terms to include the related operation of clipping (see CLIPPING CIRCUIT) which also results in the deletion of a portion of a waveform. Limiters and clippers are often used together particularly where both negative and positive peaks of

a resultant waveform are to be removed rather than bidirectional limiting used alone.

For other wave shaping circuits see WAVE SHAPING CIRCUITS [G M C]

## Limnology

The science of the life and conditions for life in lakes, ponds, and streams. It involves the study of the physical and chemical conditions of bodies of water and the production of all organisms subject to these conditions. The ultimate result of these studies is the determination of the productivity in terms of the amounts and kind of aquatic organisms. Limnological studies are of importance to any activity involving the use of bodies of fresh water, such as the management of fisheries, water supplies, pollution, sewage treatment, and impoundment. Bodies of water are classified according to their





The limpet *Patella sp.* length to 2 in

marked by a slit or notch along the margin. The surface of the shell in the latter family is usually strongly ribbed.

Limpets are utilized for food to a limited extent in Europe and to a much lesser degree in the United States. They are also utilized as fish bait and their shells are frequently used as ornaments.

Most limpets are small animals 2 in. or less in length. Except for shell and foot shape they are essentially like other snails in their anatomy (see SNAIL).

Their choice of food is varied as many limpets are highly specific in their diet. Some graze algae from rocks, others eat organic detritus, some feed on a single species of seaweed, and at least one eats only eel grass.

Most limpets have separate sexes and discharge their sperm and eggs into the sea. Some species are known to be functional as males when young but change into females when 2 or 3 years old. Limpets live a surprisingly long time for small invertebrate animals. There is one record of a Japanese species known to live for 17 years; others live at least 10-15 years.

Limpets have a strong homing instinct, spending virtually their entire life at a precise place on a rock, leaving the spot only to feed. The shape of the shell of many limpets conforms to the contour of the spot where they live.

The white cap limpet is a common Pacific Coast form about 1 in. long. The shell has a smooth white surface but it does not have an opening at the apex. The rough key-hole limpet, also a common Pacific Coast form, is characteristic of the family Fissurellidae with an opening at the apex of the cone and the shell marked with strong ridges. Its color varies from dark purple to gray brown. The keyhole limpet of the Atlantic Coast is a similar warm water species ranging from Florida southward. It is white to buff in color. Several other species occur along both coasts. See GASTROPODA.

[JUN.]

## Line

In axiomatic geometry a line frequently is taken as a primitive (undefined) concept; an element in line geometry is a class of points in a geometry with point as element whose essential properties are stated as axiom. In analytic geometry a line is identified with (or is the graph of) a linear equation  $Ax + By + C = 0$  with  $A, B \neq 0$  in Cartesian coordinates  $(x, y)$ . As a derived concept line is defined in terms of primitive notions such as di-

tance or betweenness. For example, a line  $L$  is a set of points in one-to-one correspondence with the set of real numbers such that if points  $p, q$  of  $L$  correspond to numbers  $x, y$  respectively, then distance  $(pq) = |x - y|$  or if  $p, q$  are points on the line  $L(pq)$  is the set of points consisting of  $p, q$  and all points  $x$  such that one of the points  $p, q, x$  is between the other two. See ANALYTIC GEOMETRY; GEOMETRY; EUCLIDEAN PLANE; POINT.

[L. M. BL.]

## Line integral

The line integral of a vector function  $F$  of position over a path  $C$  is

$$\int_C F \cdot dr = \int_C F_1(x, y, z) dx + \int_C F_2(x, y, z) dy + \int_C F_3(x, y, z) dz$$

where  $F_1, F_2, F_3$  are the scalar components of  $F$  along the coordinate axes. The path  $C$  is supposed to be a curve smooth at least in part defined parametrically by equations of the form

$$x = x(p), \quad y = y(p), \quad z = z(p)$$

for each smooth portion. The function  $F(x, y, z)$  etc. must be defined at all points of  $C$ . When this is so the line integral can be evaluated by writing

$$\int_C F \cdot dr = \int_{p_1}^{p_2} F(x(p), y(p), z(p)) \frac{dp}{ds} ds + \int_{p_1}^{p_2} F_2(p) \frac{dy}{dp} dp + \int_{p_1}^{p_2} F_3(p) \frac{dz}{dp} dp$$

where the prime means differentiation with respect to the parameter and  $p_1, p_2$  are values of the parameter at the end points of the path  $C$  or of smooth piece. The integral has been converted to an ordinary definite integral.

When  $C$  is a closed curve the line integral is called a circuit integral and is written

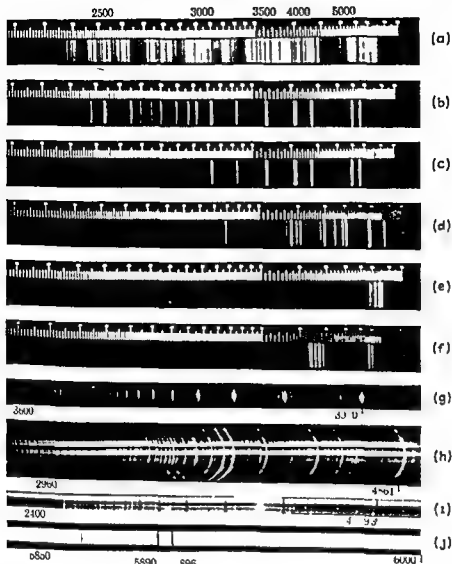
$$\oint F \cdot dr$$

Some physical applications of the line integral follow. If  $\Gamma$  is a force the line integral is the work done in moving a mass along the curve  $C$ . If  $\Gamma$  is the velocity of flow of a fluid the line integral is the circulation of the fluid along the curve. If  $\Gamma$  is the electrostatic field strength the integral is the electric potential difference between the end points of the curve. If  $\Gamma$  is the electric field strength of an electromagnetic field the circuit integral is the electromotive force of the circuit. In each example  $dr$  is physically a length. See INTEGRATION.

[M. H. H.]

## Line spectrum

A discontinuous spectrum characteristic of electric atoms, ions, or molecules in the gaseous phase at low pressure. If an electric arc or spark is between metallic electrodes, a spectrum is observed through a spectroscopic light source seen in all elements characteristic of the metal atom or ion. In order to avoid overlapping of the spectral mag-



Ph tog ph f mm l p ct w l gth f l m h w m k d p ml d d f  
 g g t m m p t ( ) t (f) l t k l m p Oth t g l d by hy  
 rh th sam q rtz p ct g ph ( ) Sp t m f d g d h l m ( ) l b pto p ct m f  
 (b) M ry p ct m f m l d d m th lt l t k with g t g B ght  
 ln q rtz ( ) S m f m l d gl (d) l b kg d o th h  
 Hel m agl d h g t b ( ) N l gl lght t b rpt by d th e  
 d ch g tub (f) Ag gl d h g t b lmt (p) S l p ct m l th ghb h od f od m  
 lg) Bolm f hydrog th lt l t D l s Th D l (5890 A d 5896 A) b  
 grat g p ct m (h) Em p ct m f m g b d by d m p th h m ph d to  
 ch m ph f th S g t g p ct m k g th t t t th l t m mb f th h w  
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 l lght e-th l t-bee t g es th  
 l t c f l p p g m g S Atomic  
 STRUCT A D CT Sp ct o co y [W F M]

### Linear accelerator

A part le eler tr wh h a lerat el t n  
 p t n hay sm traht l e by th m  
 t n falt mat g l t ge l t h ben uc eful  
 ele at g l tr n t elctie ry ea  
 that flght F a et ded d us e PAR  
 TICLE ACCELERATOR

[W K H P]

## Linear energy transfer (biology)

A physical factor which is significant in biology because in many biological actions of high energy radiations linear energy transfer (LET) strongly and characteristically modifies the quantitative relations between dose and effect. See RADIATION BIOLOGY.

When a moving, charged particle (for example an electron or proton) traverses matter it progressively loses kinetic energy which is gained in diverse amounts by individual molecules along its path. The amount of energy thus transferred per unit length of path is the LET. It is roughly proportional at least in gases to ionization per unit path (specific ionization or ion density). LET increases as the particle's velocity decreases accordingly it varies greatly along any individual path and is maximal near the end. Also LET increases as the square of the charge on the particle; for example the LET of an  $\alpha$  particle is four times that of an electron or proton of the same instantaneous velocity.

For experimental purposes different values of LET can be obtained in two general ways. In the track segment method a beam is used made up of particles (protons) that have uniform initial velocity and produce substantially straight tracks. The experiment is so arranged that they all traverse a sample of biological objects with the same linear segment of their paths. Different LET values are obtained by using suitably different path segments. In the track average method either entire paths are spent within the biological object or random linear segments of different paths traverse it. Different average values of LET are obtained by using radiations that produce suitably different spectra of LET. Although the average usually used is the arithmetic mean other averages will probably be found to be more meaningful as greater understanding of radiobiological mechanisms is achieved.

In some radiobiological actions the shape of the dose-effect curve is changed as LET is varied. However these cases are rare in comparison with those in which only the slope is changed. In the latter case the effect of LET can be expressed by a single parameter (radiobiological effectiveness RBE) which varies as the slope (or as the reciprocal of the dose in rads required to produce a given degree of effect).

For some radiobiological actions RBE decreases with an increase in LET; this is exemplified by inactivation of macromolecules, viruses and certain bacteria. For other actions RBE increases with LET; in some of these cases RBE has been shown to pass through a maximum; there are theoretical reasons to believe that maxima would be observed for all of them if larger values of LET were experimentally available. See RADIATION MICROBIOLOGY.

The distribution of individual energy transfers along a path corresponds to the distribution of ionized and excited molecules; production of which is believed to initiate the radiobiological mechanism.

Because of diffusion this distribution in space lasts only 1  $\mu$ sec or less. Thus the observed variation of RBE with LET demonstrates that some essential part of the radiobiological mechanism is completed in a very short time.

Among other interesting facts are the following: (1) In at least some radiobiological actions the influence of LET is modified by other factors such as concentration of molecular oxygen. (2) Influence of LET is also encountered in radiation chemistry. For instance the decomposition of liquid water depends strongly on LET and this dependence is modified by oxygen. Facts such as these make LET of prime interest in attempts to understand radiobiological mechanisms. See RADIATION RADIATION BIOCHEMISTRY RADIATION INJURY (BIOLOGY).

[R. E. Z.]  
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## Linear programming

A branch of mathematics centered about the finding of the point on a convex polyhedron where a linear function achieves a maximum or minimum. Although such questions have existed in mathematics for over a century a systematic approach has existed only since World War II.

The principal interest in linear programming is that many business problems can be conveniently described by it (see OPERATIONS RESEARCH). Linear programming is also applicable to problems in physical science, economics and other parts of mathematics.

**General theory.** A typical linear programming problem is to

$$\text{maximize } c_1x_1 + \dots + c_nx_n$$

where  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  satisfy the conditions

$$a_{11}x_1 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n \leq b_1$$

$$a_{m1}x_1 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n \leq b_m$$

The  $a_{ij}$ ,  $c_j$  and  $b_i$  are constants;  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  are variables.

Sometimes the problem may be to minimize rather than to maximize; sometimes some of the variables may not be required to be nonnegative; sometimes some of the inequalities  $a_{ij}x_j + \dots + a_{in}x_n \leq b_i$  may be reversed or be equalities.

The linear inequalities which the variables satisfy correspond algebraically to the fact that the variable point  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  lies in a convex polyhedron. Hence the principal mathematical bases for linear programming are the theory of linear equalities, a part of algebra, and the theory of convex polyhedra, a part of geometry. The most important theoretical foundations are as follows.

If the function  $c_1x_1 + \dots + c_nx_n$  does not go arbitrarily large for points  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  on the convex polyhedron, then a maximum is attained at a vertex of the polyhedron.

If there is a maximum in the stated problem then there is a minimum in the dual problem of minimum  $g = b_1y_1 + \dots + b_m y_m$  where  $y_i \geq 0$

$$a_{1j}y_1 + \dots + a_{mj}y_m \geq c_j$$

$$a_{1j}y_1 + \dots + a_{mj}y_m \leq c_j$$

Further the maximum and minimum are the same number. This duality theorem is mutually equivalent to the minimum theorem (see GALE THEORY). Both the duality theorem and the minimum theorem are valid in graph theory. The geometric fact that if a point is not inside a convex polyhedron then a hyperplane can be found which separates the point from the polyhedron. The duality theorem is also related to the concept of Lagrange multipliers (see CALCULUS OF VARIATIONS).

Methods of calculation. The most popular method for solving linear programs is the simplex method of the  $(x, z)$  which maximizes  $z = c_1x_1 + \dots + c_n x_n$  is the simplex method developed by George B. Dantzig in 1947. The method is geometrically a process of moving from vertex to neighboring vertex on the convex polyhedron to move along higher level lines  $c_1x_1 + \dots + c_n x_n$  until the vertex yielding the greatest value is reached. Algebraically the calculation is similar to the minimum process for  $g$  systems of algebraic equations. These calculations are easily performed on a electronic computer. The number of iterations and calculations is small.

There are also several other procedures for calculation of the minimum of a particular linear system of programming problems such as the transportation problem, see below.

Applications. Let  $a_{ij}$  denote the number of units of nutrient  $j$  present in one unit of food  $i$ . Let  $b_j$  be the minimum amount of nutrient  $j$  needed for satisfactory health,  $b_i$  be the unit price of food  $i$ . Let the variables  $y_j$  denote the number of units of food  $i$  to be bought. The dual problem is the so-called diet problem. The minimum cost of a diet is at least  $b_1$ . It has been used in planning of diets for pigs, milk, etc. of livestock and poultry. With the difference interpretation of the symbol the same form describes the problem of combining raw materials in a chemical process to produce a required product as cheaply as possible.

In the diet problem, let  $x_i$  be the number of units of food  $i$  to be purchased. Let  $a_{ij}$  be the number of units of nutrient  $j$  in one unit of food  $i$ . Let  $b_j$  be the minimum amount of nutrient  $j$  required. The transportation problem is a special case of the diet problem. Let  $x_{ij}$  be the amount of goods  $j$  transported from source  $i$  to destination  $j$ . Let  $c_{ij}$  be the cost of transporting one unit of goods  $j$  from source  $i$  to destination  $j$ . Let  $a_{ij}$  be the amount of goods  $j$  available at source  $i$ . Let  $b_j$  be the amount of goods  $j$  required at destination  $j$ . Thus, if  $x_{ij}$  is the amount of goods  $j$  transported from source  $i$  to destination  $j$ , then minimize

$$c_1x_1 + \dots + c_n x_n$$

$$\text{where } x_1 + \dots + x_n \leq a_1, \quad x_1 + \dots + x_n = b_1, \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$

The following are representative of the business applications of linear programming. Several hundred of which have now been reported. The best known applications include business have been to economic theory and statistical analysis. In both instances the duality theorem has been used to illuminate and generalize previous results.

In quadratic programming if the objective is the minimization (maximization) of a positive (negative) quadratic form over a convex polyhedron (see MATRIX THEORY). Efficient calculation procedures building on the simplex method are known for the quadratic case. In nonlinear programming the function to be minimized or maximized is even more general the constraints may also be nonlinear and efficient procedures are known only for special cases. [AJIT]

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## Linear systems of equations

Systems of mathematical equations of the form

$$\begin{aligned} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= b_1 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= b_2 \\ &\vdots \\ a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= b_m \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

where the  $a_{ij} = 1, 2, \dots, m, j = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and the  $b_i = 1, 2, \dots, m$  are constant or fixed numbers and the  $x_i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  are called unknowns. System (1) is referred to as a linear equation system in  $n$  unknowns. A solution of system (1) is a set of numbers  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n$  such that when  $x_i$  is replaced by  $c_i$ ,  $x_2$  by  $c_2$ ,  $x_3$  by  $c_3$ , etc., every equation of system (1) becomes a true equality. The problem posed by such a system of equations is to find criteria for the existence of a solution and when solution exists, to obtain systematic methods for finding the solution.

An example of such a linear system of equations is

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - x_2 - x_3 + 2x_4 &= 2 \\ x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 - 3x_4 - x_5 &= 4 \\ 3x_1 + 2x_2 + 4x_3 + 2x_4 + 3x_5 &= 2 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

This system (2) has infinitely many solutions which can be given by the function  $x_1 = -c - 4c_1 + 7c_2$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{1}{2}c - 4c_1 + 7c_2$ ,  $x_3 = c$ ,  $x_4 = -\frac{1}{2}c - 7c_1 + 7c_2$ ,  $x_5 = c$  where  $c$  and  $c_1, c_2$  are arbitrarily chosen numbers.

Two linear systems of equations are equivalent if every solution of one of the systems is also a solution of the other and vice versa. The system (1) is replaced by an equivalent system for which the solution is then easy to find. For example, for the first equation in (2), we have  $x_1 = -\frac{1}{2}c - 4c_1 + 7c_2$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{1}{2}c - 4c_1 + 7c_2$ ,  $x_3 = c$ ,  $x_4 = -\frac{1}{2}c - 7c_1 + 7c_2$ ,  $x_5 = c$ . These operations are hanging two equations and adding them to get an equation. The equation is multiplied by a constant, or multiplying an equation by a non-zero constant. By equations of such type as, system (1) is replaced by a equivalent system of the following form



$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 + d_1 x_2 + d_1 x_3 + \dots + d_1 x_n & = & e_1 \\
 x_2 + d_2 x_3 + \dots + d_2 x_n & = & e_2 \\
 \vdots & & \vdots \\
 x_m + d_m x_{m+1} + \dots + d_m x_n & = & e_m
 \end{array} \quad (3)$$

If  $e_1 = e_2 = \dots = e_m = 0$  then the solutions of the system can be obtained by choosing arbitrary values for the unknowns other than

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m$$

and solving the equations in turn beginning with the last equation for

$$x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}, \dots, x_n$$

When the system has solutions it is said to be consistent. If any one of  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m$  is not zero then the equations do not have a solution and are inconsistent. In the example (2) the system is equivalent to the system

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 - 3x_4 - x_5 & = & 4 \\
 x_2 + 5x_3 - 5x_4 - 4x_5 & = & 6 \\
 x_4 + 1x_5 & = & -2
 \end{array}$$

Arbitrary values  $c_2$  and  $c_3$  can be chosen for  $x_2$  and  $x_3$  respectively and the equations can be solved successively for  $x_1, x_4$  and  $x_5$ .

The operations used in reducing system (1) to system (3) can be most effectively performed on the rows of the matrix of the system

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & b_m \end{pmatrix} \quad (4)$$

and they are precisely the elementary row transformations of a matrix (see MATRIX THEORY). The matrix (4) is called augmented matrix of the system and the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

is called the matrix of the coefficients. The rank of a rectangular matrix is defined and the method for determining the rank is given in the article on matrix theory. A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a solution of system (1) is that the rank of the augmented matrix (4) be the same as the rank of the matrix of coefficients  $A$ . In the example (2) the rank of the augmented matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & -3 & -1 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

as well as the rank of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 1 & -3 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

is equal to 3. Therefore the system is consistent and has the solutions given earlier.

If  $m = n$  in system (1) and if the determinant  $|A|$  (see DETERMINANT) of the matrix of the coefficients  $A$  is not zero then the system (1) has a unique solution which can be obtained by Cramer's rule which gives the values of the unknown  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  as the ratio of two determinants. Specifically Cramer's rule gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} b_1 & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ b_2 & a_{22} & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_m & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \\
 x_2 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & b_2 & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & b_m & a_{m3} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \\
 \vdots & \\
 x_n &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & b_1 & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & b_2 & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & b_m & a_{mn} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|}
 \end{aligned}$$

In every case the determinant in the denominator is  $|A|$  and for the value of the unknown  $x_i$  the determinant in the numerator is the determinant of the matrix obtained from  $A$  by replacing the  $i$ th column of  $A$  by  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m$ . If  $|A| = 0$  in this case of  $n$  equations in  $n$  unknowns the system may either be inconsistent or it may have infinitely many solutions. In the example

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 - 6x_2 + 5x_3 & = & 6 \\
 2x_1 - 11x_2 + 10x_3 & = & -1 \\
 4x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 & = & 0
 \end{array}$$

$$|A| = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -6 & 5 \\ 2 & -11 & 10 \\ 4 & -1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 15$$

and the unique solution is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 6 & -6 & 5 \\ -1 & -11 & 10 \\ 0 & -1 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{15} = -2 \\
 x_2 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 6 & 5 \\ 2 & -1 & 10 \\ 4 & 0 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{15} = 1 \\
 x_3 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -6 & 6 \\ 2 & -11 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}}{15} = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

If in system (1)  $b_1 = b_2 = \dots = b_m = 0$  the system is

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n & = & 0 \\
 a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n & = & 0 \\
 \vdots & & \vdots \\
 a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n & = & 0
 \end{array} \quad (6)$$

called homogeneous the augmented matrix of (6) differs from the matrix of the coefficient by an additional column of zero. The matrices always have the same rank so that a homogeneous system of linear equations has the obvious solution  $0 = 0$   $x = 0$  which is called the trivial solution. Any solution with at least one  $x_i \neq 0$  is called a nontrivial solution. A homogeneous system of  $m$  equations in  $n$  unknowns has a nontrivial solution if and only if the rank of the matrix of coefficients is less than  $n$ . In particular if  $m < n$  then the rank of  $A$  is at most  $m$  and there is a nontrivial solution. Furthermore if  $m = n$  the system has only the trivial solution if and only if the determinant  $|A| \neq 0$ . In the system

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + 4x_2 - 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -2x_1 + 3x_2 - 4x_3 &= 0 \\ 5x_1 + x_2 + 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -9x_1 + 5x_2 - 10x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

the rank of  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & -2 \\ -2 & 3 & -4 \\ 5 & 1 & 2 \\ -9 & 5 & -10 \end{pmatrix}$  (7)

is 2 so that the system (7) has no trivial solution. The rank of  $A$  is seen to be 2 by performing elementary row reduction to echelon form

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{4}{3} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{16}{3} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

System (6) is equivalent to the system

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + \frac{4}{3}x_2 - \frac{2}{3}x_3 &= 0 \\ x_2 - \frac{16}{3}x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The solutions are given by  $x_1 = -10/17$   $x_2 = 16/17$   $x_3 = 1$  where  $c_3$  is an arbitrary homogeneous

In the event that a linear system (1) has infinitely many solutions they can be given a whole family of solutions. In the example (2) of the preceding section the solutions are given by  $x_1 = 3 - 2x_2$   $x_3 = x_2$   $x_4 = 0$   $x_5 = 0$   $x_6 = 0$   $x_7 = 0$   $x_8 = 0$   $x_9 = 0$   $x_{10} = 0$   $x_{11} = 0$   $x_{12} = 0$   $x_{13} = 0$   $x_{14} = 0$   $x_{15} = 0$   $x_{16} = 0$   $x_{17} = 0$   $x_{18} = 0$   $x_{19} = 0$   $x_{20} = 0$   $x_{21} = 0$   $x_{22} = 0$   $x_{23} = 0$   $x_{24} = 0$   $x_{25} = 0$   $x_{26} = 0$   $x_{27} = 0$   $x_{28} = 0$   $x_{29} = 0$   $x_{30} = 0$   $x_{31} = 0$   $x_{32} = 0$   $x_{33} = 0$   $x_{34} = 0$   $x_{35} = 0$   $x_{36} = 0$   $x_{37} = 0$   $x_{38} = 0$   $x_{39} = 0$   $x_{40} = 0$   $x_{41} = 0$   $x_{42} = 0$   $x_{43} = 0$   $x_{44} = 0$   $x_{45} = 0$   $x_{46} = 0$   $x_{47} = 0$   $x_{48} = 0$   $x_{49} = 0$   $x_{50} = 0$   $x_{51} = 0$   $x_{52} = 0$   $x_{53} = 0$   $x_{54} = 0$   $x_{55} = 0$   $x_{56} = 0$   $x_{57} = 0$   $x_{58} = 0$   $x_{59} = 0$   $x_{60} = 0$   $x_{61} = 0$   $x_{62} = 0$   $x_{63} = 0$   $x_{64} = 0$   $x_{65} = 0$   $x_{66} = 0$   $x_{67} = 0$   $x_{68} = 0$   $x_{69} = 0$   $x_{70} = 0$   $x_{71} = 0$   $x_{72} = 0$   $x_{73} = 0$   $x_{74} = 0$   $x_{75} = 0$   $x_{76} = 0$   $x_{77} = 0$   $x_{78} = 0$   $x_{79} = 0$   $x_{80} = 0$   $x_{81} = 0$   $x_{82} = 0$   $x_{83} = 0$   $x_{84} = 0$   $x_{85} = 0$   $x_{86} = 0$   $x_{87} = 0$   $x_{88} = 0$   $x_{89} = 0$   $x_{90} = 0$   $x_{91} = 0$   $x_{92} = 0$   $x_{93} = 0$   $x_{94} = 0$   $x_{95} = 0$   $x_{96} = 0$   $x_{97} = 0$   $x_{98} = 0$   $x_{99} = 0$   $x_{100} = 0$   $x_{101} = 0$   $x_{102} = 0$   $x_{103} = 0$   $x_{104} = 0$   $x_{105} = 0$   $x_{106} = 0$   $x_{107} = 0$   $x_{108} = 0$   $x_{109} = 0$   $x_{110} = 0$   $x_{111} = 0$   $x_{112} = 0$   $x_{113} = 0$   $x_{114} = 0$   $x_{115} = 0$   $x_{116} = 0$   $x_{117} = 0$   $x_{118} = 0$   $x_{119} = 0$   $x_{120} = 0$   $x_{121} = 0$   $x_{122} = 0$   $x_{123} = 0$   $x_{124} = 0$   $x_{125} = 0$   $x_{126} = 0$   $x_{127} = 0$   $x_{128} = 0$   $x_{129} = 0$   $x_{130} = 0$   $x_{131} = 0$   $x_{132} = 0$   $x_{133} = 0$   $x_{134} = 0$   $x_{135} = 0$   $x_{136} = 0$   $x_{137} = 0$   $x_{138} = 0$   $x_{139} = 0$   $x_{140} = 0$   $x_{141} = 0$   $x_{142} = 0$   $x_{143} = 0$   $x_{144} = 0$   $x_{145} = 0$   $x_{146} = 0$   $x_{147} = 0$   $x_{148} = 0$   $x_{149} = 0$   $x_{150} = 0$   $x_{151} = 0$   $x_{152} = 0$   $x_{153} = 0$   $x_{154} = 0$   $x_{155} = 0$   $x_{156} = 0$   $x_{157} = 0$   $x_{158} = 0$   $x_{159} = 0$   $x_{160} = 0$   $x_{161} = 0$   $x_{162} = 0$   $x_{163} = 0$   $x_{164} = 0$   $x_{165} = 0$   $x_{166} = 0$   $x_{167} = 0$   $x_{168} = 0$   $x_{169} = 0$   $x_{170} = 0$   $x_{171} = 0$   $x_{172} = 0$   $x_{173} = 0$   $x_{174} = 0$   $x_{175} = 0$   $x_{176} = 0$   $x_{177} = 0$   $x_{178} = 0$   $x_{179} = 0$   $x_{180} = 0$   $x_{181} = 0$   $x_{182} = 0$   $x_{183} = 0$   $x_{184} = 0$   $x_{185} = 0$   $x_{186} = 0$   $x_{187} = 0$   $x_{188} = 0$   $x_{189} = 0$   $x_{190} = 0$   $x_{191} = 0$   $x_{192} = 0$   $x_{193} = 0$   $x_{194} = 0$   $x_{195} = 0$   $x_{196} = 0$   $x_{197} = 0$   $x_{198} = 0$   $x_{199} = 0$   $x_{200} = 0$   $x_{201} = 0$   $x_{202} = 0$   $x_{203} = 0$   $x_{204} = 0$   $x_{205} = 0$   $x_{206} = 0$   $x_{207} = 0$   $x_{208} = 0$   $x_{209} = 0$   $x_{210} = 0$   $x_{211} = 0$   $x_{212} = 0$   $x_{213} = 0$   $x_{214} = 0$   $x_{215} = 0$   $x_{216} = 0$   $x_{217} = 0$   $x_{218} = 0$   $x_{219} = 0$   $x_{220} = 0$   $x_{221} = 0$   $x_{222} = 0$   $x_{223} = 0$   $x_{224} = 0$   $x_{225} = 0$   $x_{226} = 0$   $x_{227} = 0$   $x_{228} = 0$   $x_{229} = 0$   $x_{230} = 0$   $x_{231} = 0$   $x_{232} = 0$   $x_{233} = 0$   $x_{234} = 0$   $x_{235} = 0$   $x_{236} = 0$   $x_{237} = 0$   $x_{238} = 0$   $x_{239} = 0$   $x_{240} = 0$   $x_{241} = 0$   $x_{242} = 0$   $x_{243} = 0$   $x_{244} = 0$   $x_{245} = 0$   $x_{246} = 0$   $x_{247} = 0$   $x_{248} = 0$   $x_{249} = 0$   $x_{250} = 0$   $x_{251} = 0$   $x_{252} = 0$   $x_{253} = 0$   $x_{254} = 0$   $x_{255} = 0$   $x_{256} = 0$   $x_{257} = 0$   $x_{258} = 0$   $x_{259} = 0$   $x_{260} = 0$   $x_{261} = 0$   $x_{262} = 0$   $x_{263} = 0$   $x_{264} = 0$   $x_{265} = 0$   $x_{266} = 0$   $x_{267} = 0$   $x_{268} = 0$   $x_{269} = 0$   $x_{270} = 0$   $x_{271} = 0$   $x_{272} = 0$   $x_{273} = 0$   $x_{274} = 0$   $x_{275} = 0$   $x_{276} = 0$   $x_{277} = 0$   $x_{278} = 0$   $x_{279} = 0$   $x_{280} = 0$   $x_{281} = 0$   $x_{282} = 0$   $x_{283} = 0$   $x_{284} = 0$   $x_{285} = 0$   $x_{286} = 0$   $x_{287} = 0$   $x_{288} = 0$   $x_{289} = 0$   $x_{290} = 0$   $x_{291} = 0$   $x_{292} = 0$   $x_{293} = 0$   $x_{294} = 0$   $x_{295} = 0$   $x_{296} = 0$   $x_{297} = 0$   $x_{298} = 0$   $x_{299} = 0$   $x_{300} = 0$   $x_{301} = 0$   $x_{302} = 0$   $x_{303} = 0$   $x_{304} = 0$   $x_{305} = 0$   $x_{306} = 0$   $x_{307} = 0$   $x_{308} = 0$   $x_{309} = 0$   $x_{310} = 0$   $x_{311} = 0$   $x_{312} = 0$   $x_{313} = 0$   $x_{314} = 0$   $x_{315} = 0$   $x_{316} = 0$   $x_{317} = 0$   $x_{318} = 0$   $x_{319} = 0$   $x_{320} = 0$   $x_{321} = 0$   $x_{322} = 0$   $x_{323} = 0$   $x_{324} = 0$   $x_{325} = 0$   $x_{326} = 0$   $x_{327} = 0$   $x_{328} = 0$   $x_{329} = 0$   $x_{330} = 0$   $x_{331} = 0$   $x_{332} = 0$   $x_{333} = 0$   $x_{334} = 0$   $x_{335} = 0$   $x_{336} = 0$   $x_{337} = 0$   $x_{338} = 0$   $x_{339} = 0$   $x_{340} = 0$   $x_{341} = 0$   $x_{342} = 0$   $x_{343} = 0$   $x_{344} = 0$   $x_{345} = 0$   $x_{346} = 0$   $x_{347} = 0$   $x_{348} = 0$   $x_{349} = 0$   $x_{350} = 0$   $x_{351} = 0$   $x_{352} = 0$   $x_{353} = 0$   $x_{354} = 0$   $x_{355} = 0$   $x_{356} = 0$   $x_{357} = 0$   $x_{358} = 0$   $x_{359} = 0$   $x_{360} = 0$   $x_{361} = 0$   $x_{362} = 0$   $x_{363} = 0$   $x_{364} = 0$   $x_{365} = 0$   $x_{366} = 0$   $x_{367} = 0$   $x_{368} = 0$   $x_{369} = 0$   $x_{370} = 0$   $x_{371} = 0$   $x_{372} = 0$   $x_{373} = 0$   $x_{374} = 0$   $x_{375} = 0$   $x_{376} = 0$   $x_{377} = 0$   $x_{378} = 0$   $x_{379} = 0$   $x_{380} = 0$   $x_{381} = 0$   $x_{382} = 0$   $x_{383} = 0$   $x_{384} = 0$   $x_{385} = 0$   $x_{386} = 0$   $x_{387} = 0$   $x_{388} = 0$   $x_{389} = 0$   $x_{390} = 0$   $x_{391} = 0$   $x_{392} = 0$   $x_{393} = 0$   $x_{394} = 0$   $x_{395} = 0$   $x_{396} = 0$   $x_{397} = 0$   $x_{398} = 0$   $x_{399} = 0$   $x_{400} = 0$   $x_{401} = 0$   $x_{402} = 0$   $x_{403} = 0$   $x_{404} = 0$   $x_{405} = 0$   $x_{406} = 0$   $x_{407} = 0$   $x_{408} = 0$   $x_{409} = 0$   $x_{410} = 0$   $x_{411} = 0$   $x_{412} = 0$   $x_{413} = 0$   $x_{414} = 0$   $x_{415} = 0$   $x_{416} = 0$   $x_{417} = 0$   $x_{418} = 0$   $x_{419} = 0$   $x_{420} = 0$   $x_{421} = 0$   $x_{422} = 0$   $x_{423} = 0$   $x_{424} = 0$   $x_{425} = 0$   $x_{426} = 0$   $x_{427} = 0$   $x_{428} = 0$   $x_{429} = 0$   $x_{430} = 0$   $x_{431} = 0$   $x_{432} = 0$   $x_{433} = 0$   $x_{434} = 0$   $x_{435} = 0$   $x_{436} = 0$   $x_{437} = 0$   $x_{438} = 0$   $x_{439} = 0$   $x_{440} = 0$   $x_{441} = 0$   $x_{442} = 0$   $x_{443} = 0$   $x_{444} = 0$   $x_{445} = 0$   $x_{446} = 0$   $x_{447} = 0$   $x_{448} = 0$   $x_{449} = 0$   $x_{450} = 0$   $x_{451} = 0$   $x_{452} = 0$   $x_{453} = 0$   $x_{454} = 0$   $x_{455} = 0$   $x_{456} = 0$   $x_{457} = 0$   $x_{458} = 0$   $x_{459} = 0$   $x_{460} = 0$   $x_{461} = 0$   $x_{462} = 0$   $x_{463} = 0$   $x_{464} = 0$   $x_{465} = 0$   $x_{466} = 0$   $x_{467} = 0$   $x_{468} = 0$   $x_{469} = 0$   $x_{470} = 0$   $x_{471} = 0$   $x_{472} = 0$   $x_{473} = 0$   $x_{474} = 0$   $x_{475} = 0$   $x_{476} = 0$   $x_{477} = 0$   $x_{478} = 0$   $x_{479} = 0$   $x_{480} = 0$   $x_{481} = 0$   $x_{482} = 0$   $x_{483} = 0$   $x_{484} = 0$   $x_{485} = 0$   $x_{486} = 0$   $x_{487} = 0$   $x_{488} = 0$   $x_{489} = 0$   $x_{490} = 0$   $x_{491} = 0$   $x_{492} = 0$   $x_{493} = 0$   $x_{494} = 0$   $x_{495} = 0$   $x_{496} = 0$   $x_{497} = 0$   $x_{498} = 0$   $x_{499} = 0$   $x_{500} = 0$   $x_{501} = 0$   $x_{502} = 0$   $x_{503} = 0$   $x_{504} = 0$   $x_{505} = 0$   $x_{506} = 0$   $x_{507} = 0$   $x_{508} = 0$   $x_{509} = 0$   $x_{510} = 0$   $x_{511} = 0$   $x_{512} = 0$   $x_{513} = 0$   $x_{514} = 0$   $x_{515} = 0$   $x_{516} = 0$   $x_{517} = 0$   $x_{518} = 0$   $x_{519} = 0$   $x_{520} = 0$   $x_{521} = 0$   $x_{522} = 0$   $x_{523} = 0$   $x_{524} = 0$   $x_{525} = 0$   $x_{526} = 0$   $x_{527} = 0$   $x_{528} = 0$   $x_{529} = 0$   $x_{530} = 0$   $x_{531} = 0$   $x_{532} = 0$   $x_{533} = 0$   $x_{534} = 0$   $x_{535} = 0$   $x_{536} = 0$   $x_{537} = 0$   $x_{538} = 0$   $x_{539} = 0$   $x_{540} = 0$   $x_{541} = 0$   $x_{542} = 0$   $x_{543} = 0$   $x_{544} = 0$   $x_{545} = 0$   $x_{546} = 0$   $x_{547} = 0$   $x_{548} = 0$   $x_{549} = 0$   $x_{550} = 0$   $x_{551} = 0$   $x_{552} = 0$   $x_{553} = 0$   $x_{554} = 0$   $x_{555} = 0$   $x_{556} = 0$   $x_{557} = 0$   $x_{558} = 0$   $x_{559} = 0$   $x_{560} = 0$   $x_{561} = 0$   $x_{562} = 0$   $x_{563} = 0$   $x_{564} = 0$   $x_{565} = 0$   $x_{566} = 0$   $x_{567} = 0$   $x_{568} = 0$   $x_{569} = 0$   $x_{570} = 0$   $x_{571} = 0$   $x_{572} = 0$   $x_{573} = 0$   $x_{574} = 0$   $x_{575} = 0$   $x_{576} = 0$   $x_{577} = 0$   $x_{578} = 0$   $x_{579} = 0$   $x_{580} = 0$   $x_{581} = 0$   $x_{582} = 0$   $x_{583} = 0$   $x_{584} = 0$   $x_{585} = 0$   $x_{586} = 0$   $x_{587} = 0$   $x_{588} = 0$   $x_{589} = 0$   $x_{590} = 0$   $x_{591} = 0$   $x_{592} = 0$   $x_{593} = 0$   $x_{594} = 0$   $x_{595} = 0$   $x_{596} = 0$   $x_{597} = 0$   $x_{598} = 0$   $x_{599} = 0$   $x_{600} = 0$   $x_{601} = 0$   $x_{602} = 0$   $x_{603} = 0$   $x_{604} = 0$   $x_{605} = 0$   $x_{606} = 0$   $x_{607} = 0$   $x_{608} = 0$   $x_{609} = 0$   $x_{610} = 0$   $x_{611} = 0$   $x_{612} = 0$   $x_{613} = 0$   $x_{614} = 0$   $x_{615} = 0$   $x_{616} = 0$   $x_{617} = 0$   $x_{618} = 0$   $x_{619} = 0$   $x_{620} = 0$   $x_{621} = 0$   $x_{622} = 0$   $x_{623} = 0$   $x_{624} = 0$   $x_{625} = 0$   $x_{626} = 0$   $x_{627} = 0$   $x_{628} = 0$   $x_{629} = 0$   $x_{630} = 0$   $x_{631} = 0$   $x_{632} = 0$   $x_{633} = 0$   $x_{634} = 0$   $x_{635} = 0$   $x_{636} = 0$   $x_{637} = 0$   $x_{638} = 0$   $x_{639} = 0$   $x_{640} = 0$   $x_{641} = 0$   $x_{642} = 0$   $x_{643} = 0$   $x_{644} = 0$   $x_{645} = 0$   $x_{646} = 0$   $x_{647} = 0$   $x_{648} = 0$   $x_{649} = 0$   $x_{650} = 0$   $x_{651} = 0$   $x_{652} = 0$   $x_{653} = 0$   $x_{654} = 0$   $x_{655} = 0$   $x_{656} = 0$   $x_{657} = 0$   $x_{658} = 0$   $x_{659} = 0$   $x_{660} = 0$   $x_{661} = 0$   $x_{662} = 0$   $x_{663} = 0$   $x_{664} = 0$   $x_{665} = 0$   $x_{666} = 0$   $x_{667} = 0$   $x_{668} = 0$   $x_{669} = 0$   $x_{670} = 0$   $x_{671} = 0$   $x_{672} = 0$   $x_{673} = 0$   $x_{674} = 0$   $x_{675} = 0$   $x_{676} = 0$   $x_{677} = 0$   $x_{678} = 0$   $x_{679} = 0$   $x_{680} = 0$   $x_{681} = 0$   $x_{682} = 0$   $x_{683} = 0$   $x_{684} = 0$   $x_{685} = 0$   $x_{686} = 0$   $x_{687} = 0$   $x_{688} = 0$   $x_{689} = 0$   $x_{690} = 0$   $x_{691} = 0$   $x_{692} = 0$   $x_{693} = 0$   $x_{694} = 0$   $x_{695} = 0$   $x_{696} = 0$   $x_{697} = 0$   $x_{698} = 0$   $x_{699} = 0$   $x_{700} = 0$   $x_{701} = 0$   $x_{702} = 0$   $x_{703} = 0$   $x_{704} = 0$   $x_{705} = 0$   $x_{706} = 0$   $x_{707} = 0$   $x_{708} = 0$   $x_{709} = 0$   $x_{710} = 0$   $x_{711} = 0$   $x_{712} = 0$   $x_{713} = 0$   $x_{714} = 0$   $x_{715} = 0$   $x_{716} = 0$   $x_{717} = 0$   $x_{718} = 0$   $x_{719} = 0$   $x_{720} = 0$   $x_{721} = 0$   $x_{722} = 0$   $x_{723} = 0$   $x_{724} = 0$   $x_{725} = 0$   $x_{726} = 0$   $x_{727} = 0$   $x_{728} = 0$   $x_{729} = 0$   $x_{730} = 0$   $x_{731} = 0$   $x_{732} = 0$   $x_{733} = 0$   $x_{734} = 0$   $x_{735} = 0$   $x_{736} = 0$   $x_{737} = 0$   $x_{738} = 0$   $x_{739} = 0$   $x_{740} = 0$   $x_{741} = 0$   $x_{742} = 0$   $x_{743} = 0$   $x_{744} = 0$   $x_{745} = 0$   $x_{746} = 0$   $x_{747} = 0$   $x_{748} = 0$   $x_{749} = 0$   $x_{750} = 0$   $x_{751} = 0$   $x_{752} = 0$   $x_{753} = 0$   $x_{754} = 0$   $x_{755} = 0$   $x_{756} = 0$   $x_{757} = 0$   $x_{758} = 0$   $x_{759} = 0$   $x_{760} = 0$   $x_{761} = 0$   $x_{762} = 0$   $x_{763} = 0$   $x_{764} = 0$   $x_{765} = 0$   $x_{766} = 0$   $x_{767} = 0$   $x_{768} = 0$   $x_{769} = 0$   $x_{770} = 0$   $x_{771} = 0$   $x_{772} = 0$   $x_{773} = 0$   $x_{774} = 0$   $x_{775} = 0$   $x_{776} = 0$   $x_{777} = 0$   $x_{778} = 0$   $x_{779} = 0$   $x_{780} = 0$   $x_{781} = 0$   $x_{782} = 0$   $x_{783} = 0$   $x_{784} = 0$   $x_{785} = 0$   $x_{786} = 0$   $x_{787} = 0$   $x_{788} = 0$   $x_{789} = 0$   $x_{790} = 0$   $x_{791} = 0$   $x_{792} = 0$   $x_{793} = 0$   $x_{794} = 0$   $x_{795} = 0$   $x_{796} = 0$   $x_{797} = 0$   $x_{798} = 0$   $x_{799} = 0$   $x_{800} = 0$   $x_{801} = 0$   $x_{802} = 0$   $x_{803} = 0$   $x_{804} = 0$   $x_{805} = 0$   $x_{806} = 0$   $x_{807} = 0$   $x_{808} = 0$   $x_{809} = 0$   $x_{810} = 0$   $x_{811} = 0$   $x_{812} = 0$   $x_{813} = 0$   $x_{814} = 0$   $x_{815} = 0$   $x_{816} = 0$   $x_{817} = 0$   $x_{818} = 0$

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 + d_1 + x_1 + d_1 + x_1 + x_1 + & + d_1' x = e_1 \\
 x + d_2 + x + x + & + d_2' x = e \\
 x + d + x + x + & + d' x = e \\
 & 0 = e + 1 \\
 & 0 = e_m
 \end{array} \quad (3)$$

If  $e_1 = e_2 = \dots = e_m = 0$  then the solutions of the system can be obtained by choosing arbitrary values for the unknowns other than

$$x \quad x \quad x$$

and solving the equations in turn beginning with the last equation for

$$x \quad x - 1 \quad x_{n-1} \quad x$$

When the system has solutions it is said to be consistent. If any one of  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m$  is not zero then the equations do not have a solution and are inconsistent. In the example (2) the system is equivalent to the system

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 - 3x_4 - x_5 & = & 4 \\
 x_2 + 8x_3 - 5x_4 - 9x_5 & = & 4 \\
 x_1 + \frac{1}{5}x_3 & = & -\frac{3}{5}
 \end{array}$$

Arbitrary values  $c_5$  and  $c_3$  can be chosen for  $x_5$  and  $x_3$  respectively and the equations can be solved successively for  $x_2, x_4$  and  $x_1$ .

The operations used in reducing system (1) to system (3) can be most effectively performed on the rows of the matrix of the system

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} & b_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & a_{m4} & b_m \end{pmatrix} \quad (4)$$

and they are precisely the elementary row transformations of a matrix (see MATRIX THEORY). The matrix (4) is called augmented matrix of the system and the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & a_{m3} & a_{m4} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

is called the matrix of the coefficients. The rank of a rectangular matrix is defined and the method for determining the rank is given in the article on matrix theory. A necessary and sufficient condition for the existence of a solution of system (1) is that the rank of the augmented matrix  $A$  be the same as the rank of the matrix of coefficients  $A$ . In the example (2) the rank of the augmented matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & -3 & -1 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 & 2 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

as well as the rank of

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & 4 & -3 & -1 \\ 3 & 2 & 4 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

is equal to 3. Therefore the system is consistent, and has the solutions given earlier.

If  $m = n$  in system (1) and if the determinant  $|A|$  (see DETERMINANT) of the matrix of the coefficients  $A$  is not zero then the system (1) has a unique solution which can be obtained by Cramer's rule which gives the values of the unknown  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  as the ratio of two determinants. Specifically Cramer's rule gives

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} b_1 & a_{12} & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ b_2 & a_{22} & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ b_3 & a_{32} & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ b_4 & a_{42} & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \\
 x_2 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & b_1 & a_{13} & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & b_2 & a_{23} & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & b_3 & a_{33} & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & b_4 & a_{43} & a_{44} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \\
 x_3 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & b_1 & a_{14} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & b_2 & a_{24} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & b_3 & a_{34} \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & b_4 & a_{44} \end{vmatrix}}{|A|} \\
 x_4 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & b_1 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} & b_2 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} & b_3 \\ a_{41} & a_{42} & a_{43} & b_4 \end{vmatrix}}{|A|}
 \end{aligned}$$

In every case the determinant in the denominator is  $|A|$  and for the value of the unknown  $x_i$  the determinant in the numerator is the determinant of the matrix obtained from  $A$  by replacing the  $i$ th column of  $A$  by  $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m$ . If  $|A| = 0$  in the case of  $n$  equations in  $n$  unknowns the system may either be inconsistent or it may have infinitely many solutions. In the example

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 - 1x_2 + 5x_3 &= 0 \\
 2x_1 - 11x_2 + 10x_3 &= -1 \\
 4x_1 - x_2 + 5x_3 &= 0 \\
 |A| &= \begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 & 5 \\ 2 & -11 & 10 \\ 4 & -1 & 5 \end{vmatrix} = 45
 \end{aligned}$$

and the unique solution is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 0 & -1 & 5 \\ -1 & -11 & 10 \\ 0 & -1 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{45} = -\frac{1}{45} \\
 x_2 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 \\ 2 & 0 & 10 \\ 4 & 0 & 5 \end{vmatrix}}{45} = \frac{1}{45} \\
 x_3 &= \frac{\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & -11 & -1 \\ 4 & -1 & 0 \end{vmatrix}}{45} = \frac{1}{45}
 \end{aligned}$$

If in system (1)  $b_1 = b_2 = \dots = b_m = 0$  the system

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + \dots + a_{1n}x_n &= 0 \\
 a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + \dots + a_{2n}x_n &= 0 \\
 \vdots & \vdots \\
 a_{m1}x_1 + a_{m2}x_2 + \dots + a_{mn}x_n &= 0
 \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

called homogeneous. Since the augmented matrix of (6) differs from the matrix of the coefficients by adding a column of zeros, the two matrices always have the same rank, so that a homogeneous system always consistent. It has the basic solution  $0x = 0$  which is the trivial solution. Any linear system with  $1 \leq m \leq n$  is called non-trivial. A homogeneous system of  $m$  equations in  $n$  unknowns has a non-trivial solution if and only if the rank of the matrix of coefficients is less than  $n$ . In particular, if  $m < n$ , the rank of  $A$  is at most  $m$  and the system has a non-trivial solution. Furthermore, if  $m = n$ , the system has a non-trivial solution if and only if the determinant  $|A| = 0$ . In this system

$$\begin{aligned} 3x_1 + 4x_2 - 2x_3 &= 0 \\ -x_1 + 3x_2 - 4x_3 &= 0 \\ 5x_1 + x_2 + 4x_3 &= 0 \\ -9x_1 + 5x_2 - 10x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The rank of  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 & -2 \\ -1 & 3 & -4 \\ 5 & 1 & 4 \\ -9 & 5 & -10 \end{pmatrix}$  (7)

is 2, so that the system (7) has a non-trivial solution. The rank of  $A$  is seen to be 2 by performing elementary row reduction on  $A$  to obtain

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

System (6) equivalent to the system

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 + 4x_2 - 2x_3 &= 0 \\ x_2 - 4x_3 &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The solution is given by  $x_1 = -10/17$ ,  $x_2 = 16/17$ ,  $x_3 = 1$ . This is a basis for the solution space.

In the event that the linear system (1) has infinitely many solutions, they can be given as follows. In the example (2), the rank of the coefficient matrix is 2, and the rank of the augmented matrix is 2, so that the system has infinitely many solutions. In this example (2),  $x_1 = 9t$ ,  $x_2 = 7t$ ,  $x_3 = t$ .

If the system (1) is consistent, every solution is of the form  $x = c_1c + c_2c_2 + \dots + c_kc_k$ , where  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$  are the basic solutions of (1) and  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$  are any solutions of the corresponding homogeneous system (6). By this method, the homogeneous system (6) can be solved.

Let  $C = (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k)$  and  $C' = (c'_1, c'_2, \dots, c'_k)$  be solutions of the homogeneous system (6). Write  $C + C' = (c_1 + c'_1, c_2 + c'_2, \dots, c_k + c'_k)$ . The rank of the matrix of coefficients of  $C + C'$  is at least the maximum of the ranks of the matrices of  $C$  and  $C'$ , where

a fixed number is a scalar multiple of the solution  $C'$ . It is evident that any linear combination  $c_1C^{(1)} + c_2C^{(2)} + \dots + c_kC^{(k)}$  of solutions  $C^{(i)}$  of (6) is again a solution of (6). A set of solutions  $C^{(1)}, C^{(2)}, \dots, C^{(k)}$  of the homogeneous system (6) is called a linearly independent set if  $c_1C^{(1)} + c_2C^{(2)} + \dots + c_kC^{(k)} = 0$  implies that  $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_k = 0$ . Otherwise, the solutions form a linearly dependent set, that is, there exist numbers  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$ , not all zero, such that  $c_1C^{(1)} + c_2C^{(2)} + \dots + c_kC^{(k)} = 0$ . A set of solutions is a maximal linearly independent set if the set is linearly independent and if a set formed by adding any other solution of (6) is linearly dependent. If the rank of the matrix  $A$  of (6) is  $r$ , then the number of linearly independent solutions is  $n - r$ . Every solution of (6) is a linear combination  $c_1C^{(1)} + c_2C^{(2)} + \dots + c_{n-r}C^{(n-r)}$  of the solutions  $C^{(i)}$  of the maximal linearly independent set. In the example (7), the corresponding homogeneous system is

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - x_2 - x_3 + 2x_4 &= 0 \\ x_1 + 3x_2 + 4x_3 - 3x_4 - x_5 &= 0 \\ 3x_1 + 2x_2 + 4x_3 + 2x_4 + 3x_5 &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

The rank of the matrix  $A$  of (8) is 3. Thus there are  $5 - 3 = 2$  solutions, a maximal linearly independent set. They can be given as  $C^{(1)} = (-4, -8, 7, 0, 0)$  and  $C^{(2)} = (-3, 1, 0, -1, 3)$ . Every solution of (8) is given by  $C^{(1)} + C^{(2)} = (-4, -3, -8, -1, 3)$  for arbitrary  $c$ . Every solution of the original system is given by  $(-4c - 3c, -3c - 8c, -8c + 7c, -c, 3c) = (-7c, -11c, -c, -c, 3c)$ . In the example (7), the rank of the matrix of (2) is 2, so that  $3 - 2 = 1$  solution, a maximal linearly independent set. It can be given as  $C^{(1)} = (-10, 16, 17)$  and every solution of (7) is a multiple of  $C^{(1)}$ .

If the system of equations (1) has a solution, then the set of all solutions is a linear space. This means that the set of solutions is a vector space. The dimension of the solution space is  $n - r$ , where  $r$  is the rank of the coefficient matrix. The particular solution  $x_0$  as well as the linearly independent solutions  $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k$  of the corresponding homogeneous system can always be determined. The determinant of the particular solution  $x_0$  is performed in the system of linear equations. A ratio of the particular solution to the homogeneous system is a ratio of the particular solution to the homogeneous system. EQUATIONS THEORY OF POLYNOMIAL SYSTEMS OF EQUATIONS

[RAB]

### Linearity

The relationship between two quantities where the change in one of them produces a directly proportional change in the other. The amplitude of a signal is a quantity which is directly proportional to the square of the amplitude of the signal. The amplitude of a signal is a quantity which is directly proportional to the square of the amplitude of the signal. The amplitude of a signal is a quantity which is directly proportional to the square of the amplitude of the signal.

In television uniform linearity of scanning is essential for uniform spacing of picture elements in each horizontal line and uniform vertical spacings between scanning lines. Poor linearity causes the picture to be compressed or stretched in some area so that circles of test patterns become egg shaped or even more greatly distorted. [JMR]

## Linen

A widely used cloth made from flax fibers. Linen is noted for its evenness of thread fineness and density. Its uses include garments, tablecloths, sheeting, towel, and thread.

The flax plant which supplies the fiber needs a short cool growing season with plenty of rainfall (see FLAX). The USSR leads the world in growing flax for fiber. The manufacture of the fiber into fabric requires unusual care throughout each process in order to retain the strength and beauty of the fiber.

**Processing the fiber.** Seeds and leaves are removed from the stems of the flax plant by passing the stalks through coarse combs, a process called *rippling*. Bundles of stems weighted down with heavy stones to ensure complete immersion are then steeped in water. The wetting allows the tissue or woody bark surrounding the hairlike flax fibers to decompose, thus loosening the gum that binds the fibers together. This decomposing or fermentation is called *retting*.

After removal from water the stems may be spread out on the ground for a week or more. After the woody tissue has become dry, it is crushed by fluted iron rollers. After this breaking operation there remain only small pieces of bark called *shives*. The shives are removed by means of rotating wooden paddles, thus finally releasing the flax fibers. This operation can be done either by hand or with machinery. The simple combing process known as *hackling* straightens the flax fibers, separates the short from the long staple, and leaves the longer fibers in parallel formation. For very fine linen, hackling is usually done by hand and in repeated passes, a finer comb being used with each hackling treatment. Coarse linen is hackled by machine.

**Properties of flax fiber.** Under a microscope the flax fiber shows hairlike cylindrical filaments with fine pointed ends. The filaments are cemented together at intervals in the form of markings or nodes by a gummy substance called *pectin* (see PECTIN). The long flax filaments contain a lumen or central canal. The fiber resembles a straight smooth bamboo stick with its joints producing a slight natural unevenness that cannot be eliminated. Chemically, the flax fiber is composed of about 70% cellulose, 25% pectin, and the remainder of woody tissue and ash (see CELLULOSE). From such fibers, linen yarns are produced that have a smooth, straight, compact and lustrous appearance. See FIBER, NATURAL TEXTILE. [MDP]

**Bibliography.** See AGRICULTURAL SCIENCE (PLANT).

## Lines of force

Imaginary lines in fields of force whose tangent at any point gives the direction of the field at that point and whose number through unit area perpendicular to the field represents the intensity of the field. The concept of lines of force is perhaps most common when dealing with electric or magnetic fields.

**Electric lines of force.** These are lines drawn to represent or map an electric field graphically in the space around a charged body. They are of great help in visualizing an electric field and in quantitative thinking about such a field. The direction of an electric line of force at any point is drawn parallel to the direction of the electric field intensity  $E$  at that point. The quantitative convention is that the number of electric lines of force drawn through an imaginary unit area of surface perpendicular to the field shall be numerically equal to  $E$  at that area. From this quantitative convention and using the rationalized mks system of units,  $q/\epsilon_0$  lines of force originate on a positive charge  $q$  (in coulombs) and a like number terminate on a negative charge  $q$  of the same magnitude. Here  $\epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$  coul<sup>2</sup>/newton m<sup>2</sup> is the permittivity of empty space. See ELECTRIC FIELD.

**Magnetic lines of force.** A magnetic field of strength  $H$  may also be represented by lines called lines of force. The number of lines of force per unit area of a surface perpendicular to  $H$  is numerically equal to the value of  $H$ . The lines of magnetic force due to currents are closed curves, as are the lines of magnetic induction. Magnetic lines of force due to magnets originate on north poles and terminate on south poles, both inside and outside the magnet. See MAGNETIC FIELD. [RFW]

**Bibliography.** R. P. Winch, *Electricity and Magnetism*, 1955.

## Link

An element of a mechanical linkage. A link may be a straight bar, a disk, or it may have any other shape, simple or complex. It is assumed for simple analysis to be made of unyielding material—that is, its shape does not change. A link is capable of turning about an instant center. The frame or fixed member of a linkage is one of the links, whether the frame is fixed relative to the earth or fixed relative to a movable body such as the chassis of an automobile. By this definition, auxiliary members of mechanisms such as belts, springs, and other flexible connectors and liquid columns in hydraulic systems are not links. [ESF]

## Linkage, genetic

The presence of numerous pairs of genes in the same chromosome or homologous pair of chromosomes. Two or more gene differences do not segregate independently into separate cell nuclei when they are located in homologous chromosomes. They remain in their original combinations unless a mutual exchange of equivalent chromosomes takes

not occur between the homologous points in a process as crossing over. See RECOMBINATION GENETICS SEX LINKED INHERITANCE. [DDP]

## Linkage mechanism

A set of rigid bodies, called links, joined together to produce a mechanism of prescribed motion. A body is considered to be rigid if its physical properties do not change. Linkages are used to transmit power and motion. They may be employed to make a point on the linkage follow a prescribed curve, or to produce a motion of the linkage. They may be used to produce a motion of the linkage. They may be used to produce a motion of the linkage. They may be used to produce a motion of the linkage.

If the links are bars, they are termed a bar linkage. In first approximation, a bar may be treated as a straight line segment, a portion of a curve, and a pivot may be treated as a common point on the bars connected at the pivot. A mechanism of bar linkage is then one for which the links are restricted to a given plane, such as a four-bar linkage (Fig 1). A body pivoted to a fixed base and free to move in a circle is a crank. A crank 4 in Fig 1 rotates, link 2 (also crank) oscillates back and forth. The four-bar linkage thus transforms a rotary motion into an oscillatory motion. Link AB marked 1 in Fig 1 is a fixed link. Link 2 may be replaced by a slider 5 (Fig 2). As end D of crank 4 rotates, point C describes the same curve as before. The slider moves in a fixed guide.

A commonly occurring situation of the four-bar linkage is the linkage used in a reciprocating engine.

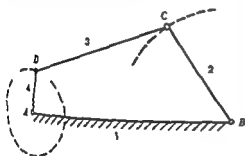


Fig 1 Four-bar linkage

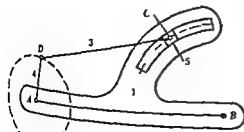


Fig 2 Equivalent of four-bar linkage

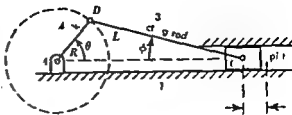


Fig 3 Slider-crank mechanism

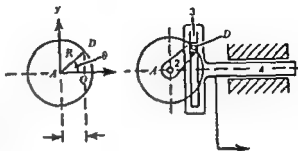


Fig 4 Scotch yoke

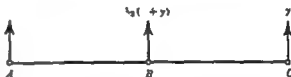


Fig 5 Addition with a slider

Fig 3) Slider C is the piston in a cylinder. Link 3 is the connecting rod and link 4 is the crank. This mechanism transforms a line into circular motion or vice versa. The straight slider 1 is with the crank center is equivalent to pivot at the end of an infinitely long link. Let R be the length of the crank, L the length of the connecting rod while  $\theta$  and  $\phi$  denote the angles of the crank and rod (Fig 3). Let  $x$  denote the coordinate of the pivot C measured so that  $x=0$  when  $\theta=0$ . Length L normally denotes radius R when the full weight approximates the length of the

$$x = R(1 - \cos \theta) + \frac{R^2}{2L} \sin^2 \theta \quad (1)$$

A Scotch yoke is employed to convert rotary motion into simple harmonic motion (Fig 4). The angle of the crank 2 with respect to the horizontal is denoted by  $\theta$  and the coordinate of the slider 4 by  $x$ . If R again denotes the length of the crank, the following holds:

$$x = R \cos \theta \quad (2)$$

Input motion has slider 3 can be measured along the crank, the displacement of a point on the slider mechanism.

A lever is normally understood to be a bar connected to the other link. A lever is often used for displacement (Fig 5). Point B is the center of the lever AC. It is measured that the distance is called the lever arm. The length of the lever

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## Linkage genetic

The presence of numerous pairs of genes in the same chromosome or homologous pair of chromosomes. Two or more gene differences do not segregate independently into separate cell nuclei when they are located in homologous chromosomes. They remain in their original combinations unless a mutual exchange of equivalent chromosomal seg-



Section through the lower lip of a mouse (From R. D. Gross, *Developmental Biology* McGraw-Hill 1954)

epithelium has been modified frequently by wip-  
ing with the tongue. Accidentally the labial margin  
is subject to happening remarks.

**Development** The lower lip develops from the fusion of two components, the mandibular processes, while the upper lip develops from four of the twomaxillary and twomandibular processes. The upper lip is a separate unit in development, the embryonic nest of the lip. At times the clefts of the lips are the upper jaw bone and the mandible with the left palatine. Lip becomes parastitutes when the epithelium of each primitive jaw region grows into a plate and then cleaves into two, thereby producing the clefts of the paring the lip from the gum. **ORAL GLAND** [L.B.A.]

### Lipid

Olefins are compounds which contain long  
hydrocarbon chains (cyclic or acyclic)  
and their derivatives such as acids (fatty acids)  
alcohols, aldehydes, alcohols, aldehydes.  
The presence of the long hydrocarbon chain  
characteristic of lipids is the defining feature.  
Lipids are composed of fatty acids and glycerol.  
The lipids are divided into simple lipids and  
complex lipids. Simple lipids are those which  
are soluble in water but insoluble in alcohol.  
Complex lipids are those which are soluble in  
alcohol and water. The lipids are divided into  
simple lipids and complex lipids. Simple lipids  
are those which are soluble in water but insoluble  
in alcohol. Complex lipids are those which are  
soluble in alcohol and water. The lipids are  
divided into simple lipids and complex lipids.  
**Classification** The lipids are generally clas-  
sified into two groups: simple lipids and complex lipids.

#### A Simple lipid

1. Triglycerides: fatty acids esterified with glycerol. Examples: lauric acid, stearic acid, myristic acid, palmitic acid, oleic acid, linoleic acid, arachidonic acid.
2. Waxes: fatty acids esterified with long-chain alcohols. Examples: beeswax, spermaceti, carnauba wax.
3. Steroids: lipids derived from partially hydrogenated phenanthrene. Examples: cholesterol, ergosterol.

#### B Complex lipid

1. Phospholipids: lipids containing phosphorus and many other groups. Examples: lecithin, cephalin, sphingomyelin, cardiolipins.
2. Glycolipids: lipids which contain both hydroxyl and ester groups. Examples: cerebrosides, gangliosides, sphingolipids, glycosphingolipids.
3. Sphingolipids: lipids containing sphingosine and its derivatives. Examples: sphingosine, sphingomyelin, sphingolipids, sphingolipids.

The classification of lipids is based on the chemical structure of the molecule. The lipids are divided into simple lipids and complex lipids. Simple lipids are those which are soluble in water but insoluble in alcohol. Complex lipids are those which are soluble in alcohol and water. The lipids are divided into simple lipids and complex lipids.

Cheeks. One of the most prominent features of the mammalian face is the jaw region, which is created by the fusion of the jaw bones. The jaw bones are composed of the maxilla and the mandible. The maxilla is the upper jaw bone, and the mandible is the lower jaw bone. The jaw bones are connected by the temporomandibular joint. The jaw bones are covered by the buccal prepuce, which is a fold of the skin. The buccal prepuce is attached to the jaw bones by the buccal muscle. The buccal muscle is a large, powerful muscle that is responsible for the movement of the jaw. The buccal muscle is composed of the buccinator muscle and the buccinator muscle. The buccinator muscle is a small, triangular muscle that is located in the cheek. The buccinator muscle is responsible for the movement of the jaw. The buccinator muscle is composed of the buccinator muscle and the buccinator muscle. The buccinator muscle is a small, triangular muscle that is located in the cheek. The buccinator muscle is responsible for the movement of the jaw. The buccinator muscle is composed of the buccinator muscle and the buccinator muscle.





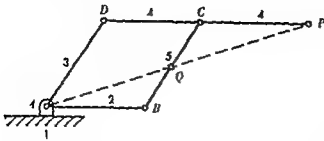


Fig 6 Pantograph

Lever with a fixed pivot (fulcrum) are particularly useful for amplifying or attenuating linear displacements and forces.

The pantograph shown in Fig 6 is a five link mechanism employed in drafting to magnify or reduce diagrams. As point Q on link 5 describes a curve, point P on link 4 will describe a similar but enlarged curve. Here ABCD is a parallelogram. Pivot A is fixed.

A mechanism composed of six links introduced by Joseph Whitworth (1803-1887) makes the return stroke of a body in oscillatory linear motion faster than the forward stroke. Universal joints for transmitting motion between intersecting axes and couplings permitting rotation about an axis in one direction only are examples of the many kinds of linkages used in machines. However, complicated linkages are becoming obsolete because of the ease with which information and power can be transmitted by electrical, hydraulic and pneumatic means. [H.O.]

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## Linoleum

A floor covering made by applying a mixture of gelled linseed oil, pigments, fillers and other materials to a burlap backing and curing to produce a hard, resilient sheet. The surface may be further decorated by printed patterns. The term is also applied, although incorrectly, to similar resilient floor coverings made of other resins or related materials. See DRYING OIL. [F.S.D.]

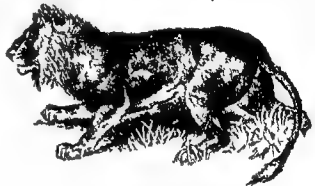
## Linseed oil

A product made from the seed of the flax plant (*Linum usitatissimum*) by crushing and pressing them either with or without heat. After the linseed oil is extracted, it is formulated either raw or boiled in various grades and with various drying agents such as litharge, minium and zinc sulfate. Its most common uses are as the vehicle in oil paints and as a component of oil varnishes after a longer period of boiling and other preparation as a printing and lithographic ink base. In the manufacture of oilskin raincoats, oilcloth and linoleum and in some soaps. Oil cake, the residue of the crushed seeds, is a protein-rich material used for cattle feed. Most linseed raised for oil comes from Argentina, Russia and India, with lesser

quantities from the north central United States and Canada. It was first used as a drying oil in the twelfth century with the introduction of oil painting. See DRYING OIL, FLAX, SURFACE COATING. [C.C.O.]

## Lion

A large carnivore *Felis leo* of the family Felidae now limited to southern and central Africa. At one time it was found over much of Asia and southern Europe. The male lion may attain a weight of 600 lb and a length of 11 ft including the tail. Females are somewhat shorter and much lighter.



The African lion *Felis leo* is 8 ft high to the shoulder (from P. M. DuRoi and Cassell's *Natural History Cassell*, 1883).

Because of relentless hunting, lions are constantly being reduced in numbers and are losing territory. They live in groups called prides and show a degree of cooperation in the securing of food and rearing of the young not practiced by other cats. Most of the work of securing food for the pride is done by the female. Lions are greatly harassed by a host of smaller animals that try to steal part of the kill when the lions have succeeded in the hunt. See CARNIVORA. [J.D.B.]

## Lip

A fleshy fold above and below the entrance to the mouth of mammals. Even the lower vertebrate with movable jaws such as the amphibian and most reptiles have fold of skin external to the jaws and teeth. The external covered superficially with epithelium are usually soft and supported internally by connective tissue. By contraction in turtles, birds and the lower mammals (monotremes) the epithelium is cornified and hardened to form a beak or bill. Nevertheless, only the typical mammal (marsupial and placental mammal) possesses a highly developed type of true lip. The lips are separated by deep cleft from the jaw and are made movable by containing muscle belonging to the facial group. The separating lip muscles constitute the vestibule of the mouth. The increased size and mobility of the lip of mammals are adapted to such functions as sucking, drinking, grasping food and holding it against the teeth. The opening into the mouth is expanded or contracted at will. The lips of man are important in producing articulate speech and thus are of special importance. [J.D.B.]



and carbohydrate and glycolipids which contain phosphorus. Those lipids not included in the above groupings are of the chemically simpler type and include the fatty acids, alcohols, ethers such as butyl and chymyl alcohols, and hydrocarbons such as the terpenes and carotenes.

The fatty acids found in lipids may be saturated or unsaturated, cyclic or acyclic and contain substituent such as hydroxyl or keto groups. They are combined in ester or amide linkage.

The alcohols likewise may be saturated or unsaturated and are combined in ester or ether linkages. In the case of  $\alpha\beta$  unsaturated ethers, these are best considered as aldehyde derivatives.

The amino alcohols found in lipids are linked as amides, glycosides or phosphate esters. Sphingosine is the amino alcohol found in animal tissues and phytosphingosine is its equivalent in the plant kingdom. One long chain diamine (necrosamine) has been isolated from the lipids of the bacterium *Escherichia coli*.

**Occurrence.** Lipids are present in all living cells but the proportion varies from tissue to tissue. The triglycerides accumulate in certain areas such as adipose tissue in the human being and in the seeds of plants where they represent a form of energy storage. The more complex lipids appear to be more nearly structural elements and occur in the membranes of cells and of special bodies within the cells. More active tissues generally have a higher complex lipid content; for example, the brain, liver, kidney, lung, and blood contain the highest concentration of phosphatides in the mammal. Fish oils are important sources of vitamins A and D, and seed germ oils contain quantities of vitamin E. The vitamins K occur chiefly in plants and microorganisms, and carotenoids are widely distributed in both the plant and animal kingdoms. Waxes are found in insects and as protective agents on plant leaves and the cuticles of fruits and vegetables (for instance, the bloom on grapes and plums). Soybeans are used for the commercial preparation of phosphatides.

**Extraction.** Many of the lipids, particularly glycolipids, phosphatides, and steroid esters, are present in the tissue in association with other cell components such as protein. The nature of the linkages in these complexes is not fully understood, although they are most certainly not covalent. Combinations of lipid and protein like lipoproteins and proteolipids have been isolated from sources such as blood serum and egg yolk. For the efficient extraction of lipids from tissues, these complexes must first be disrupted, and this is usually accomplished by dehydration procedures such as freeze drying or acetone extraction, or by denaturation with alcohol before extracting the tissue with suitable lipid solvents. The use of mixed solvents such as ethanol and ether, ethanol and benzene, or chloroform and methanol, allow disruption, dehydration, and extraction in one operation. Partial fractionation of lipid may be effected by successive extractions with different solvents.

**Separation.** The difficulties involved in the separation of lipids have held back progress toward their chemical identification. Prior to 1948, solvent fractionations or the use of specific complexing agents such as cadmium chloride for the separation of lecithin were the only methods available. Since then, the use of column chromatography, particularly on alumina and silicic acid, counter-current distribution, and ion-exchange resins has allowed far more rapid progress in separation and also has led to the discovery of previously undescribed lipids. Other methods which allow elective degradation of certain lipids either chemically (for example, the use of dilute alkali to cause preferential hydrolysis of esters) or enzymatically are also being used successfully for the separation of certain lipids. See CHROMATOGRAPHY.

**Identification.** Most of the conventional analytical procedures are used in the identification of lipid samples. Physical methods such as infrared and ultraviolet spectroscopy, optical rotation, and proton magnetic resonance studies have been used. Gas phase chromatography is playing an important part in the identification of fatty acids. Particularly useful are paper chromatography, both reversed phase and silicic acid impregnated, qualitative and quantitative methods for the determination of esters, aldehydes, carbohydrate, long chain bases, and the other important components of lipids such as glycerol, glycerophosphate, ethanolamine, choline, cerine, amino sugars, and inositol, and elementary analyses for nitrogen and phosphorus. The nitrogen to phosphorus ratio of a phosphatide sample has long been used as a criterion of purity because carbon and hydrogen analyses on a single phosphatide species are not highly revealing owing to the spectrum of fatty acids that may be present. The degree of unsaturation is determined by hydrogenation or iodine number determination, and free hydroxyl groups are expressed by the acetyl value. Lipid samples also may be hydrolyzed under a variety of acid or alkaline conditions and the products investigated by paper chromatography. See CARBOXYLIC ACID, FAT AND OIL, EDIBLE FAT AND OIL, NONEDIBLE GLYCOLIPID, LIPID METABOLISM, PHOSPHATIDE, SPHINGOLIPID, STEROID, TERPENE, TRIGLYCERIDE, VITAMIN, WAX, ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE.

[HFC:RHC]

**Bibliography.** H. J. Deuel, *Lipids* 3 vol. 1951; 1957. H. Gilman (ed.), *Organic Chemistry as Advanced Treatise* vol. 3 1953. R. T. Holman, W. O. Lundberg, and T. Mallin (eds.), *Progress in the Chemistry of Fats and Other Lipids* 4 vols. 1957. J. A. Lovren, *The Chemistry of Lipids of Biochemical Significance* 1955. H. Wittcoff, *The Phosphatides* 1951.

## Lipid metabolism

Lipids are compounds known as fat, waxes, phospholipid, glycolipid, and sterols. The lipid is the most concentrated source of energy for living organisms, yielding more than twice as much en-

per gram as carbohydrate or protein. They provide the most food remains in the tissue and thus delay the onset of hunger. Lipids also provide the essential fatty acids such as linoleic and linolenic acids and arachidonic acid, which the fat-soluble vitamins (A, D, E, and K) enter the body. The body lipids are stored fat acids of food and fat and in hepatogenous fat in the fat again to give heat. These acids are the utilization and synthesis of lipids in the normal process of digestion and absorption. The digestion process in the intestine renders fat water-soluble in the form of absorption through the wall of the intestine and lymph channels.

**Fat digestion.** Little fat digestion occurs in the stomach except in infants. In the intestine, the bile salts and pancreatic secretions from the pancreas (the succenteric) regulate the digestion of fat. The bile, formed by the liver and collected in the gallbladder from the intestine, mixes with the food. The bile contains phospholipids, bile acids, cholesterol, and glycerol. The detergent which acts on the digested fat is bile. When the acid content of the stomach is discharged into the duodenum (the first portion of the intestine), the bile salts are digested by the duodenum into the blood. The bile salts are then secreted into the pancreatic juice. The pancreatic lipase enzyme, which digests protein and a hydrolytic enzyme, lipase, which hydrolyzes the digested fat, forms glycerol and fatty acids. These actions are aided by the sucrose. The pancreatic juice then binds the enzyme with the food and digests it.

**Fat absorption.** The digested material is hydrolyzed into glycerol and fatty acids. The glycerol is absorbed into the lymphatic system, which discharges it into the liver. The fatty acids are absorbed into the blood. The bile salts are reabsorbed in the intestine. The stool then contains bile salts, cholesterol, and the products of fatty acids. The bile salts are reabsorbed in the intestine. The stool then contains bile salts, cholesterol, and the products of fatty acids. The bile salts are reabsorbed in the intestine. The stool then contains bile salts, cholesterol, and the products of fatty acids.

**Stool.** Fatty acids are digested into fatty acids and glycerol. The fatty acids are digested into fatty acids and glycerol. The fatty acids are digested into fatty acids and glycerol.

unusually amount of fatty material in the stool. This condition is termed steatorrhea.

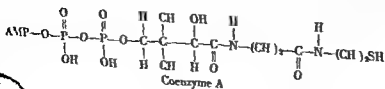
**Lipids in the blood.** Fatty acids are recognized (1) triglycerides, (2) monoglycerides, (3) cholesterol, (4) phospholipids, (5) free fatty acids (NFA), (6) fatty acids combined with glycerol, which have recently received attention particularly because of their action in diabetes, (7) cholesterol, a complex ester compound which is concentrated in the blood has significance in hypertension, (8) phospholipids, combination of fatty acid with phospholipids and lecithin. Fat in the blood exists in the form of small droplets called chylomicrons. Lipemia means an excess of lipids in the blood or the normal serum phosphatide sterol.

**Turnover of body lipids.** Fat in the body depot has a very active metabolism. They are continually being degraded and used up. The fatty acids can synthesize new fat from carbohydrate and other substances. In the steady state when total body fat is constant, the rate at which fat is oxidized and resynthesized is called the turnover rate. It can be measured by using isotopes for example, in a water. The average turnover is about 10% of the total body fat per day.

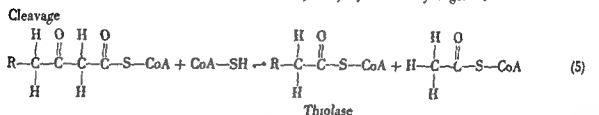
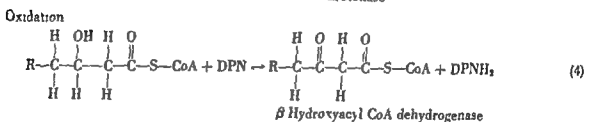
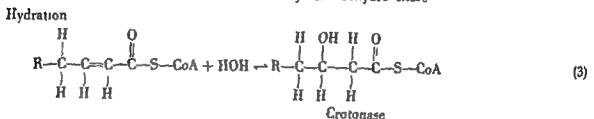
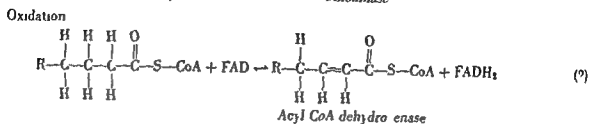
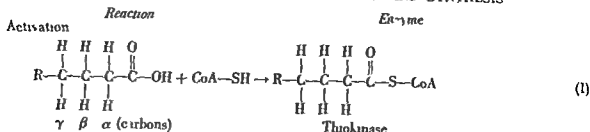
**Adipose tissue.** Collections of fat are composed mainly of fat cells called adipocytes. In addition to fat, they also contain protein and other substances. The main sites of adipose tissue are (1) beneath the skin, (2) around the kidneys and other organs, and (3) in the supportive structures of the intestines, the omentum, mesentery, etc. Fatty acids are released that deposit in the tissues. Fatty acids are usually inactive but recent work has shown that they are as active as or more active than most other types of tissue. For example, they synthesize fat readily from carbohydrate and other nutrients. In addition, they respond to hormones such as insulin and growth hormone in some instances more than the tissue changes the liver or muscle. This metabolic activity is a characteristic of adipose tissue rather than the fat itself.

**Oxidation and synthesis.** The body is able to oxidize fatty acids for purposes of energy production. In addition, it can synthesize new fatty acids from precursors derived from carbohydrate or protein. This biosynthesis is called lipogenesis. Fatty acid metabolism has been the subject of extensive research and is a highly active field.

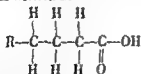
**Oxidation of high fatty acid.** The complete oxidation of fatty acids involves a complex pathway involving the citric acid cycle and the electron transport chain. The oxidation of fatty acids is a highly regulated process and is a key component of energy metabolism.



## CURRENT CONCEPT OF FATTY ACID OXIDATION AND SYNTHESIS



There are five reactions concerned in the oxidation of higher fatty acids. Each requires a special enzyme, and two of the reactions require cofactors as oxidizing agents which accept the hydrogens from the fatty acids. In reaction (1) activation the fatty acid is written as



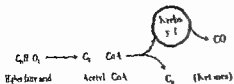
in which only the terminal four carbon atoms are given. R represents a chain of carbon atoms up to 14 in number. The initial reaction consists of activation by combination of the carboxyl group of the fatty acid with coenzyme A, yielding an acyl coenzyme A. The enzyme is called the activating enzyme or thiolase. In reaction (2) first oxidation two hydrogen atoms are removed from the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  carbons with the production of an unsaturated fatty acid analogous to crotonic acid. The enzyme is called acyl CoA dehydrogenase, and the cofactor which acts as the oxidizing agent is

flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD). In reaction (3) hydration, hydrogen and the hydroxyl group (from water) are introduced at the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  carbons respectively. A  $\beta$  hydroxy acid is formed; the enzyme is crotonase. In reaction (4) second oxidation two hydrogens are removed from the  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  carbons of the  $\beta$  hydroxy acid to form a keto acid. The oxidizing agent is diphosphopyridine nucleotide (DPN). In reaction (5) cleavage, acetyl CoA is split off. Thus a fatty acid two carbons shorter than the original one is formed. Simultaneously the shortened fatty acid combines with another molecule of CoA at the newly formed carboxyl group to yield a new activated fatty acid. The enzyme is  $\beta$  ketothiolase. The new activated fatty acid undergoes the same series of reactions, and this process is repeated until the entire fatty acid molecule has been reduced completely to acetyl CoA. The fate of the acetyl CoA molecules will be discussed below. See DIPHOSPHOPYRIDINE NUCLEOTIDE (DPN).

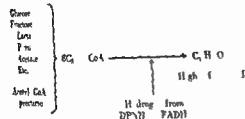
The interrelation of oxidation and breakdown of fatty acids and synthesis is shown in the diagram.

# METABOLIC SCHEMA FATTY ACIDS

See diagram below



Synthesis



Oxidation of the higher fatty acid such as palmitic acid with 16 carbon atoms yields eight molecules of acetyl CoA. Two fatty acids form a triglyceride. The acetyl CoA is used for energy production in the mitochondria.

2. Condensation of two molecules of acetyl CoA with the release of two molecules of  $H_2O$  to form acetoacetyl CoA. This is the first step in the synthesis of fatty acids.

Long chain fatty acids are synthesized in the cytoplasm and then enter the mitochondria for oxidation.

The process of synthesis of the higher fatty acids from acetyl CoA is a multi-step process. It involves the formation of a malonyl CoA intermediate, which then reacts with acetyl CoA to form acetoacetyl CoA. This process continues, with the addition of two-carbon units from malonyl CoA to the growing chain, until the desired length is reached. The final product is a long-chain fatty acid, which can then be used for energy production or stored in adipose tissue.

malic acid is a chain containing 16 or 18 carbon atoms. When the fatty acids reach this length, the acetyl CoA is split off by an enzyme, deacylase, yielding the free fatty acid which in turn is mixed with glycerol to form the triglyceride that is fat.

Recent research work in fatty acid synthesis has led to the conclusion that the synthesis of fatty acids requires an enzyme, triphosphorylase, which is active in the reduced state ( $TPH_2$ ) whereas oxidation requires FAD. See TRIPHOSPHORYLASE NUCLEOTIDE ( $TPH$ ).

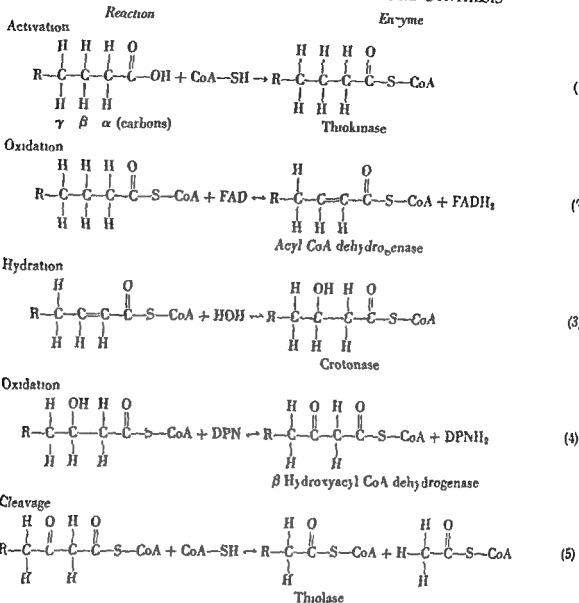
**Change in length of fatty acid chains.** The fatty acids in the body fat depot are composed of chains which always contain an even number of carbon atoms. The fatty acids contain the higher number of carbon atoms, namely 14, 16, and 18. These are respectively myristic, palmitic, and stearic acid. The body readily lengthens or shortens the chain of stearic acid ( $C_{18}$ ) as needed. It is possible to have (using notation) that the palmitic acid ( $C_{16}$ ) is lengthened by two carbons to stearic acid ( $C_{18}$ ). Conversely, it is also possible to have that stearic acid ( $C_{18}$ ) may be shortened to palmitic acid ( $C_{16}$ ) or myristic acid ( $C_{14}$ ). Shorter fatty acids such as butyric ( $C_4$ ), caproic ( $C_6$ ), caprylic ( $C_8$ ), and capric ( $C_{10}$ ) are also found in body fat but not in the depot of body fat.

**Unsaturated fatty acids formation.** A fatty acid contains a double bond between two carbon atoms. It is called an unsaturated fatty acid. Trans formation of saturated to unsaturated fatty acids occurs in the animal body. For example, stearic acid ( $C_{18}$ ) is a saturated fatty acid and is readily converted to oleic acid with the removal of one carbon atom, but only on a double bond. The position of the double bond is indicated by the terminal group  $\Delta^9$ . This means that the double bond is located between the ninth and tenth carbon atoms from the carboxyl end of the long fatty acid chain. The reverse transformation from saturated fatty acid to unsaturated fatty acid also occurs in the animal body.

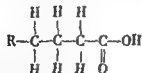
**Essential fatty acids.** The animal body is incapable of synthesizing and storing a certain fatty acid. It has been observed that if an animal is fed a diet that is deficient in certain fat-soluble vitamins, such as vitamins A, D, E, and K, it develops a nutritional deficiency characterized by changes in the skin and fur. These deficiencies can be cured by feeding the animal a diet rich in these vitamins. The essential fatty acids are those that cannot be synthesized by the animal but must be ingested as part of the diet. They are known as the essential fatty acids.

**Transport of fatty acids.** Under certain conditions, fatty acids are transported from the depot to the blood stream. They are carried in the blood stream as triglycerides but not in the depot may be used as free fatty acids. The cell

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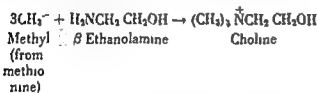
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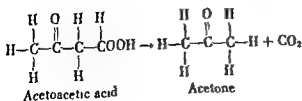
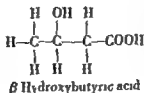
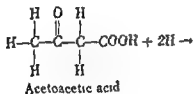


nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA) Fatty acids are also transported in the blood stream combined with phosphatides It is possible that the process of mobilization of fatty acids from depots may be under hormonal control A hormone adipokinin originating in the pituitary gland is stated to be this fat mobilizing hormone Under certain circumstances an excessive amount of fat is mobilized from the fat depots and transported for deposition in the liver Inadequate control of diabetes is one such circumstance The feeding of certain substances such as choline prevents this accumulation of fat in the liver Such a substance is called a lipotropic agent If the diet is deficient in choline the animal develops a fatty liver Methionine is also a lipotropic agent and when it is fed prevents the accumulation of fat in the liver It has been shown that methionine transfers its methyl group to  $\beta$  ethanolamine to form choline The reaction is



This process is called transmethylation

**Degradation of fatty acids** Liver muscles and other tissues can break down the fatty acid portions of fats to smaller molecules This process of oxidation is called  $\beta$  oxidation because the second or  $\beta$  carbon counting from the carboxyl group is oxidized As a result the fatty acid chain is shortened by two carbons forming acetyl CoA In the muscles and other organs acetyl CoA is further oxidized by the Krebs cycle as already described but in the liver under certain circumstances all the acetyl CoA formed is not oxidized Instead two molecules of acetyl CoA may form acetoacetic acid which cannot be further oxidized by the liver Acetoacetic acid is transformed into  $\beta$  hydroxybutyric acid or acetone according to the following reaction



These three compounds are called the ketone bodies They are formed only in the liver Under certain circumstances such as starvation or diabetes these acid derivatives of fat are formed in excessive amounts in the liver and accumulating in the blood give rise to a condition known as ketosis or ketoacidosis The excessive formation of ketone bodies leads to a high concentration of them in the blood a condition called ketonemia In addition excess ketone bodies are excreted in the urine leading to ketonuria Such ketoacidosis in the patient if allowed to continue unchecked results in his death Before the advent of insulin such fatal acidosis in diabetics was quite common It is to be noted that the muscles are capable of oxidizing the ketone bodies and deriving the major portion if not all of their energy therefrom in starvation of diabetic ketosis However in the uncontrolled diabetic subject the formation of ketone bodies may greatly exceed the utilization of them by the muscle or other tissues so that fatal ketosis results The excessive ketone formation in the diabetic is due primarily to an inability of the diabetic to synthesize fatty acids from carbohydrates or other sources This failure of lipid synthesis is believed to be basically due to the inability of the liver to metabolize carbohydrate in a normal way Oxidative formation of fatty acids to ketone body exceeds fatty acid synthesis ketosis therefore results

Uncontrolled ketosis in the diabetic patient brings about abnormal acidity of the blood dehydration due to excessive loss of fluid and loss of sodium In consequence the patient lapses into coma

**Role of the phosphatides** The phosphatides are compounds of phosphate and certain bases containing nitrogen namely ethanolamine serine and choline the so called phosphatide base When combined with fatty acids they tend to make the insoluble fatty acids soluble in water They also tend to congregate at membrane surfaces and so are found in higher concentrations at the surface of cells They are not found combined with fat in the depot but can combine with the lipids of the blood and of the liver

**Obesity** The daily energy requirements of the body are met by the caloric yield of the food intake If more food is ingested than is required for energy demands the excess is converted into fat and deposited in the fat depots Long continued ingestion of food beyond the caloric requirements leads to the excess deposition of fat or obesity There are some physiologists who believe that obesity is due solely to overeating but others believe that certain individuals have a type of metabolism which leads to fat deposition even when the caloric intake is relatively small

**Cachexia** In certain conditions such as chronic infectious diseases cancerous or other malignant growth diabetes hyperthyroidism an excessive loss of fat may occur leading to emaciation and diminished fat stores in the body Such an extreme

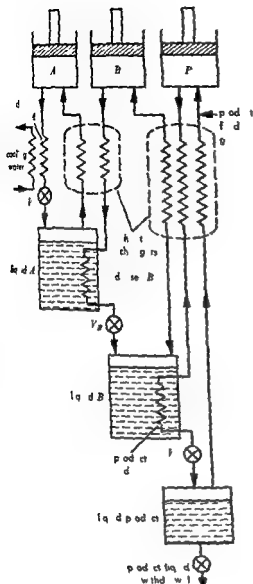


Fig 3 G liquefaction by Joule-Thomson effect

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reversible expansion (a gas from a high to a low pressure can be approximated with either a piston or turbine-type expander. The former has been the more widely used; the latter although the more efficient handles much larger volumes of gas in proportion to its size than the development and actual use has depended upon the need for large production facilities for liquefied gases. In addition widespread usage of both types of expanders has been retarded until recently by lack of suitable method of lubrication for moving parts and bearings at very low temperature. It is difficult to maintain the high theoretical efficiency inherent in this type of cycle in heat generation by friction; these expanders minimize this because all temperatures increase or decrease in a given amount of heat is usually appreciably larger at low temperatures than at high.

The simplest type of refrigerating machine employing this basic principle is the gas refrigerators shown in Fig 4. In an actual machine of the type shown expansion is at a pressure 40 to 1 atm pressure with the gas temperature at the expander inlet between 200 K, results in an exit temperature of about 100 K. In principle this refrigerating machine would liquefy a liquid refrigerant the working fluid. If the expander were adiabatic, the inlet temperature would fall progressively with continued operation and eventually the gas would liquefy in the expander itself. Such a process is highly inefficient however because the liquid formed wets the walls of the cylinder and tubin. This film of liquid hinders the flow of the gas and the cylinder wall to the working fluid and introduces a dead weight irreversibility into the cycle. In addition the formation of liquid in the expander usually introduces a mechanical instability. Hence, in practice the expander is used only to produce the low temperature required for liquefaction. The po-

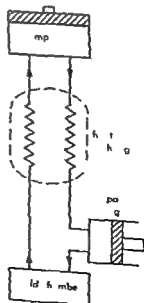


Fig 4 Schematic diagram of a gas refrigerator

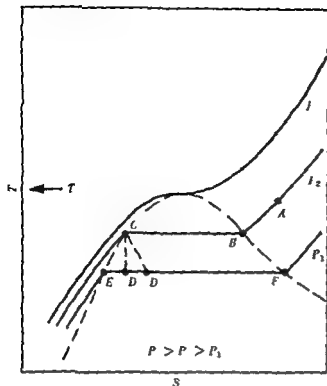


Fig 2 Temperature-entropy ( $TS$ ) diagram for a typical gas

compressibility of the liquid. Assuming the critical temperature of a gas to lie above ambient, liquefaction of a gas by vapor compression consists simply of compressing it isothermally until it liquefies.

A procedure whereby a liquefied gas at a temperature below ambient can be produced using a vapor compression process is best described with the help of a temperature-entropy diagram for a gas. In Fig. 2 the decrease in entropy  $S$  with temperature  $T$  for a gas held at constant pressure is shown by the various curves labeled  $P_1$ ,  $P$ , and  $P_2$  (see ENTHALPY). At some temperature less than  $T_c$  for every pressure less than  $P_c$  (for example point  $B$ ) liquid will begin to form at constant temperature with further decrease in volume and continued withdrawal of heat from the gas. Let it now be assumed that the vapor has been entirely compressed to a liquid (path  $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$  in Figure 2). If at point  $C$  the confining pressure that is the vapor pressure on the compressed liquid is in excess of atmospheric pressure the liquid can be isolated thermally from its surroundings and the confining pressure slowly reduced. The liquid will then boil but due to its thermal isolation the heat of vaporization can be supplied only by the sensible heat of the liquid itself. The whole liquid is therefore cooled at the expense of vaporizing a part of it. On the  $TS$  diagram (Fig. 2) this result is illustrated by the path  $C \rightarrow D$  asuming the pressure reduction is carried out slowly and hence quasi-reversibly. For such an isentropic expansion this diagram provides a direct determination of the remaining amount of liquid. The fraction of gas produced is given by the length ratio  $FD/EF$  that for the liquid is  $DF/EF$ . In practice the expansion of the compressed liquid is carried out irreversibly

through a valve. Under the conditions a larger fraction of liquid is evaporated as shown by the path  $C \rightarrow D$ .

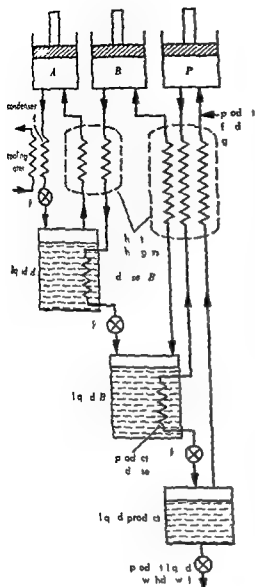
When refrigeration is the objective of the process outlined above (which is frequently the case) the gas formed in the throttling stage as well as that originating from evaporation of the cold liquid is returned to the compressor intake and the cycle just described is repeated. By balancing liquid evaporation due to heat leak with liquid production by expansion steady conditions can be achieved in the low temperature reservoir. Refrigerators of this type are useful in the liquefaction of still other gases. If the cold liquid produced is withdrawn as product and used elsewhere a liquefaction rather than a refrigeration cycle is the result. Make-up gas in an amount equivalent to that liquefied must then be continuously introduced to the cycle at the compressor intake.

**Refrigeration.** When the critical point of a gas lies below ambient temperature a refrigerator can always be used to cool the gas sufficiently to liquefy it by the vapor compression process described above. Refrigerators are almost employed to precool the feed gas in other liquefaction cycles producing thereby a more nearly reversible and hence more efficient process. Because not only different gases but also many types of refrigerators exist the particular one chosen for any given application always requires a careful matching of process requirements to refrigerator characteristics. In this section therefore it will be possible only to outline the basic aspects of gas liquefaction using refrigerators.

In any refrigerating machine with gas stream flowing from high to low temperature region and conversely it is necessary to prevent the circulating gases from transporting heat energy thus introducing large and undesirable heat leaks into the cycle. By using a device called a heat exchanger heat energy can be transferred across the medium separating the gas stream in such a way that the warm stream is cooled and the cold stream warmed over essentially the same temperature interval while ideally no heat energy flows along the temperature gradient of the exchanger. A simple heat exchanger consists of two concentric copper tubes through which countercurrent gas streams flow with heat being transferred across the copper surface adjacent to both streams.

A particularly simple refrigerator is a continuously replenished bath of a liquefied gas cooling under reduced pressure and hence at a lower temperature than ambient as described in the previous section. By using a series of the bath as a cooling stage at a lower temperature and each acting in turn as a condenser for the one with the next lower boiling point a cascade-type liquefier may be established as illustrated in Fig. 3. See REFRIGERATION.

**Performance of external work.** The maximum possible cooling effect resultant from any spontaneous change in the state of a substance of total



reversible expansion of a gas from a high to a low pressure can be approximated with either a piston or turbine type expander. The former has been the most widely used the latter although the more efficient handle such large volumes of gas in proportion to its size that its development and actual use has depended upon the need for large production facilities for liquefied gas. In addition widespread usage of both types of expanders has been retarded until recently by lack of suitable method of lubrication for moving parts and bearing at very low temperatures. In order to maintain the high theoretical efficiency inherent in this type of cycle heat generation by friction in the expander must be minimized because all temperature is produced by a given amount of heat are usually appreciably larger at low temperatures than at high

The simplest type of refrigerating machine employs the above principles: the gas refrigerator shown in Fig. 4. In a actual machine of the type shown expansion of air from 40 to 1 atm pressure when the gas temperature at the expander intake is 200 K results in an exit temperature of about 100 K. In principle this refrigeration machine could also reverse a liquid flow with continued operation and eventually the gas would liquefy in the expander itself. Such a process is highly inefficient however because the liquid is formed wetting the walls of the cylinder. This fact inhibits the flow from the hot cylinder wall to the working substance and reduces considerably its efficiency. In the cycle in addition the formation of liquid in the expander usually introduces a mechanical instability. Hence, in practice the expander is cooled only to produce the low temperatures required for liquefaction. The pro-

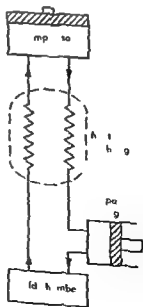


Fig 4 Schematic flow diagram of the system

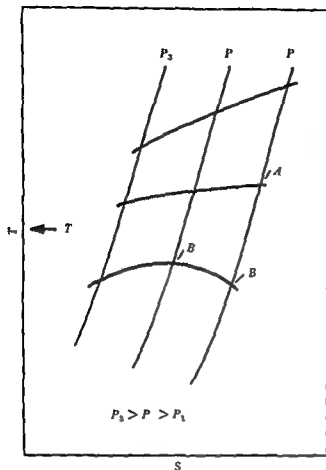


Fig 5 Temperature-entropy diagram for a gas (high temperature region)

duction of the actual liquid is always carried out either by vapor compression or the Joule-Thomson process. Discussion of the latter is reserved until after the next section, but an application of the principles developed so far is illustrated by the A. D. Little hydrogen liquefier. In this compact device the working substance, helium gas, circulates through two reciprocating expansion engines operating at two different temperature levels. The exit temperature from the lower temperature engine is maintained at approximately the boiling point of hydrogen. The hydrogen gas to be liquefied is cooled by passing it through a heat exchanger counter to the expanded cold helium until its temperature is reduced sufficiently to permit liquefaction by vapor compression.

**Joule-Thomson expansion.** Under certain conditions an irreversible adiabatic expansion of a gas (or a liquid) through a throttling device such as a valve can result in a decrease in temperature of the effluent gas. A thermodynamic analysis shows that in this process, called a Joule-Thomson expansion, the heat content or enthalpy of the gas is unchanged. If the temperature at which the expansion is carried out is above a particular temperature for each gas, the gas effluent from the throttle valve will be warmer than that at the valve inlet; below this temperature, called the inversion temperature, expansion will result in a cooling of the gas. In order to use this cooling effect in gas liquefaction, the expansion temperature must always be below

the inversion temperature. The list shows the in

Gas	$T_i$ , $^{\circ}\text{A}$
Helium	51
Hydrogen	205
Neon	242
Nitrogen	621
Argon	723
Oxygen	893

version temperatures of a number of common gases from which it will be noted that neon, the hydrogen isotopes, and the helium isotopes are the only gases not below their inversion points at ordinary temperatures. Precooling before expansion is necessary only with the three gases in order to obtain refrigeration from the Joule-Thomson process. In Fig 5, a simplified  $T$ - $S$  plot of a typical gas is presented. On it is shown the variation of  $S$  with  $T$  for three different pressures. The heavy lines represent constant enthalpy lines and hence display the temperature history (as well as the entropy history) of a gas in an enthalpic expansion. Above the point marked  $T_i$ , it is seen that a Joule-Thomson expansion always results in a temperature rise, no matter what the initial pressure. At  $T_i$  and here only for very low pressures, for example, point  $A$ , there is no change in  $T$  upon expansion. Below  $T_i$ , there is a drop in the temperature upon expansion first at very low pressures and then with further decrease of the temperature at increasing pressures (path  $B \rightarrow B$ ). At low tem

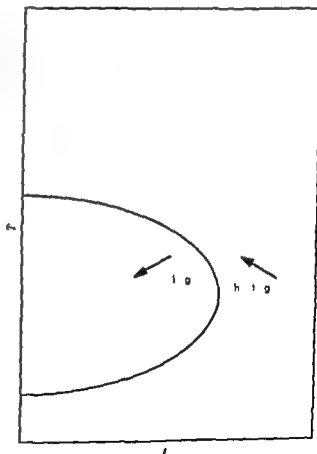


Fig 6 Inversion temperature versus pressure for a gas

peratures, the pressure at which condensation occurs  
 per pressure gain decreases. If the temperatures at  
 which the inversion occurs are plotted against the pressure, a roughly parabolic curve  
 is obtained. Expansion from any point within the parabola always  
 produces cooling. From a point outside a heating  
 occurs initially until the pressure and temperature  
 of the gas is reduced sufficiently to bring it within  
 the parabola.

In considering this process for gas liquefaction  
 must be remembered that at least until the expan-  
 sion is made occur at very low temperatures the  
 Joule-Thomson process is a far less effective cool-  
 ing process than is entropic expansion. By cycling  
 the gas repeatedly through a compressor, heat  
 exchanging, and an expansional, however the  
 cooling obtained from the passage of each mass of  
 gas through the valve can be made cumulative. In  
 this the temperature of the expansion valve is  
 continuously reduced until finally enough re-  
 frigeration is produced to liquefy a fraction of the  
 nitrogen. Beyond this point the liquid and returning  
 gas remain in the compressor through the heat  
 exchange, the temperature of the expansion  
 valve begins to decrease and eventually a steady  
 state is reached at which the refrigeration removed  
 as liquid just balances the produced in the expan-  
 sion. In Fig 7 this steady state is represented on  
 the  $P$ - $S$  diagram. The ratio  $DG/LG$  is the fraction of

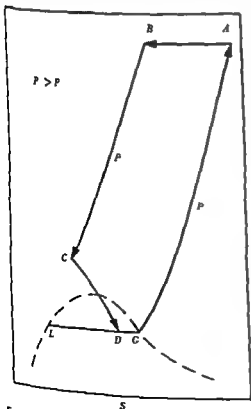


Fig 7 Joule-Thomson inversion cycle  
 temperature-pressure diagram showing the  
 phase region

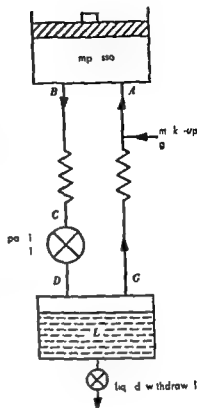


Fig 8 The liquefaction cycle

liquid produced per mole of gas passing through  
 the Joule-Thomson valve, the fraction  $DL/LG$   
 represents moles of gas returning to the compres-  
 sor at which point make up gas is added to the  
 system. An amount necessary to maintain steady  
 state conditions though out the cycle. The get-  
 tating action of the Joule-Thomson process in its lack  
 of magnitude permits at low temperatures. Furthermore  
 it provides a satisfactory method of producing the  
 liquid and separating it from the gas stream as  
 contrasted with the previously mentioned difficul-  
 ties encountered when the liquid is allowed to form  
 in a tube before expansion.

The Joule-Thomson process is used in many  
 different ways in the practice of gas liquefaction.  
 The simplest is that first developed by Carl von  
 Linde shown in Fig 8. The letters attached to the  
 drawing correspond to the state of the gas shown  
 in Fig 7. In practice, gas purification must be intro-  
 duced downstream of the compressor in order to  
 prevent nonideal impurities from clogging the  
 heat exchanger. The basic cycle has been adapted  
 in many ways of which few (1) use of an  
 expansion engine, (2) use of a magnetic pressure isotherm or a gas  
 refrigerant, (3) use of independent high and low  
 pressure cells with or without additional  
 precooling, and (4) use of closed refrigeration  
 systems with liquefaction by heat exchange with  
 working fluid. It should also be noted that  
 the reversible process of the liquid through  
 the still is meant to end the cycle in an ap-

compression is an isenthalpic or Joule Thomson expansion

In the discussion of the four basic methods of gas liquefaction given above no association of a particular gas with one or more liquefaction schemes has been made. This omission has been deliberate because with few exceptions all schemes will work with all gases and therefore as mentioned earlier the choice of method is governed by other considerations.

**Storage of liquefied gases** Liquefied gases at temperatures below ambient could be stored in definitely if it were possible to prevent heat influx to the liquid from the warmer surroundings. No perfect heat insulators exist; however, hence heat constantly flows at a rate dependent upon the quality of the insulation into all such liquefied gas reservoirs. If the container is vented to the atmosphere this heat leak causes continuous evaporation of the reservoir contents. If the container is sealed the heat leak will cause the temperature of the liquid to rise with concomitant increase in the pressure until either the temperatures of the liquid and surroundings have equalized or until the increased pressure has ruptured the container. Because sufficiently effective insulation is now available to reduce boil-off losses to economically tolerable levels, atmospheric venting is common practice in most large storage facilities. Occasionally however because of hazard value of the product or liquefaction costs, no loss storage of liquefied gases is required. This may be accomplished for short periods of time by simply plugging the vent line and allowing the temperature of (and pressure in) the reservoir to rise. For longer period refrigeration at the temperature level of the liquefied gas must be supplied to balance the heat leak to the container.

Liquefied gas containers range in size from tiny glass laboratory dewars for specialized studies with small amounts of rare liquids to reservoirs containing hundreds of thousands of gallons for use in industry. The insulation employed depends entirely upon the proposed usage. In a mile tank for example the storage time is short; insulation can therefore be almost eliminated especially because minimization of propellant tank weight is a prime consideration. For storage of liquid helium however where reliquefaction is costly and the gas supply itself is not unlimited, use of the best insulation available is usually justified. See ATMOSPHERIC CASES PRODUCTION OF [E F H]

**Bibliography** M. M. Davies *The Physical Principles of Gas Liquefaction and Low Temperature Rectification* 1949. S. Fluege (ed.) *Handbuch der Physik* vol. 14 1956. K. H. Timmerhaus et al. (eds.) *Cryogenic Engineering Conference Proceedings* 1954 1956 1957 1958 1959.

## Liquefied petroleum gas (LPG)

A mixture of petroleum gases principally propane and butane which must be stored under pressure to keep it in a liquid state. At atmospheric pressure

and above freezing temperature these substances would be gases. Large quantities of propane and butane are now available from the gas and petroleum industries. These are often employed as fuel for tractors, trucks, and buses and mainly as a domestic fuel in remote areas because of the low boiling point ( $-44$  to  $0^\circ\text{C}$ ) and high vapor pressure of these gases in their handling, as liquids in pressure cylinders is necessary. Owing to demand from industry for butane derivatives, LPG sold as fuel is made up largely of propane. On a gallonage basis production of LPG in the United States exceeds that of kerosene and approaches that of diesel fuel.

Operating figures for gasoline diesel and LPG fuels show that LPG compares favorably in cost per mile. LPG has a high octane rating making it useful in engines having compression ratios above 10:1.

Another factor of importance in internal combustion engines is that LPG leaves little or no engine deposit in the cylinders when it burns. Also since it enters the engine as a vapor it cannot wash down the cylinder walls, remove lubricant, and increase cylinder wall piston and piston ring wear. Nor does it cause crankcase dilution. All these factors reduce engine wear, increase engine life, and keep maintenance costs low. However, allowances must be made for the extra cost of LPG handling equipment. The LPG must be stored in relatively heavy pressurized tanks and special equipment must be used to fill the fuel tanks on the vehicles. See GAS TURBINE, INTERNAL COMBUSTION ENGINE, PETROLEUM PRODUCTS [M 40]

## Liquid

A fluid which flows under exceedingly low shear stresses and which conforms to the shape of a containing vessel but which lacks the capacity to expand indefinitely. Above their critical temperature liquids are indistinguishable from dense gases and it is possible to devise an infinite number of paths by which the transition from a liquid to a gas may occur continuously. Ordinarily the range of pressure and temperature over which the liquid state exists is intermediate between that for solids and gases. For substances whose triple points lie above 1 atm pressure, however, the liquid state is stable only at higher pressures.

**Structure of liquids** For normal substances the liquid is formed from the solid at the melting point by the absorption of the latent heat of fusion. Generally the density of the liquid state is slightly lower than that of the solid and melting is accompanied by an increase in volume. A relatively small number of substances including ice, bismuth, gallium, germanium, and silicon contract on melting. No satisfactory explanation of the presence of melting exists largely because of the inadequacy of the theory of liquid. Liquid like solids possesses a vapor pressure which depends upon the temperature (see VAPOR PRESSURE) and it is when the vapor pressure is equal to the ambient pressure that the energy absorbed in the liquid vapor phase





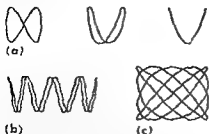


Fig 1 Typical Lissajous figures for ratios of vertical frequency to horizontal frequency of (a) 2:1 with various phase relations (b) 3:1 (c) 5:4 (From F E Terma Radio Engineers Handbook McGraw-Hill 1943)

mounted on the prong of a separate tuning fork the forks vibrate in perpendicular directions and the image of the light source focused on a screen trace out the figure

The cathode ray oscilloscope furnishes the most important and practical means for the generation of the figures. The x deflection plates of the tube are supplied with one alternating voltage and the y deflection plates with another. If the frequencies are incommensurable the figure is not a closed curve and except for very low frequencies will appear as a patch of light because of the persistence of the screen. On the other hand if the frequencies are commensurable the figure is closed and strictly periodic it is a true Lissajous figure stationary on the screen and if the persistence is sufficient visible continuously as a complete pattern. See OSCILLOSCOPE CATHODE RAY

**Frequency measurements** Measurement of frequency in sinusoidal wave motion (for example in alternating electric current) may be accomplished with an oscilloscope if one of the alternating voltages is derived from a variable frequency calibrated oscillator. The standard is adjusted until a stationary figure results. If  $f_v$  is the frequency of the signal on the vertical deflection plates and  $f_h$  that on the horizontal plates then  $f_v/f_h$  equals the number of times a side of the figure is tangent to a vertical line divided by the number of times the

top or bottom is tangent to a horizontal line. The shape of the figure depends also on the relative phase of the signals (see Fig 1) and in the case where one half of the figure coincides with the other the rule just stated does not hold. This situation is not troublesome in practice because unavoidable slow frequency drifts of the signals prevent the figure from being exactly stationary instead the shape of the figure changes as though the relative phase of the signals were slowly changing.

In some cases the standard is of fixed frequency and the unknown is nearly equal to the standard (or to some multiple or submultiple thereof). The figure will drift slowly through the various aspects it can assume for the nominal ratio involved. The actual ratio can be obtained from the nominal ratio and a correction determined by the rate and direction of drift of the figure. This method is particularly valuable for the intercomparison of standards.

**Phase measurements** These usually involve two signals of the same frequency. In this case the Lissajous figure is an ellipse of which the shape and orientation depend on the relative phase and relative amplitudes of the signals as shown in Fig 2. The relative phase  $\theta$  is given by

$$\sin \theta = \pm B/A$$

in which  $A$  is the maximum half height and  $B$  is the intercept on the y axis. Figure 2 shows how the quadrant in which  $\theta$  lies is determined by the orientation of the major axis of the ellipse and the direction of motion of the spot. If the latter is unknown the resulting ambiguity amounts to that in the sign of  $\sin \theta$  once it is decided which signal is the reference. The ambiguity can be resolved by shifting the phase of either signal in a known direction and noting whether the phase shift indicated by the figure increases or decreases.

The most precise comparison can be made when the ellipse degenerates into a straight line. This condition is therefore used as a null in measurements made with a calibrated phase shifter. The

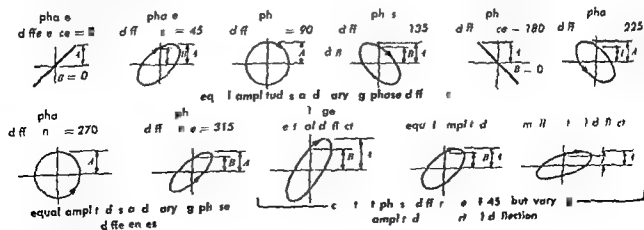


Fig 2 Typical Lissajous figures of 1:1 frequency ratio (From F E Terma Radio Engineers Handbook McGraw-Hill 1943)

unknown phase h ft d tu h s th      ll      d the cal  
 based phase h ft      resto es it

State completed figure as employed in the circuit of phase shifters. A signal at the desired frequency is injected through the phase shifter the plates of an oscilloscope and a phase through a frequency multiplier on is 8 for example. The signal figure will appear as a figure 15. The phase shifter is then uniquely set to the point for which one-half of the figure coincides with the other these positions will correspond phase difference of in the case of  $-90^\circ$ .

PHASE ANGLE MEASUREMENT [MGR]

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vol. I reprint, 194 F E Term and J M P t  
m, El ct onic Me ur m ts 2d d 1952

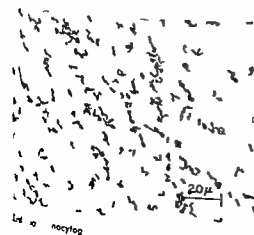
## Listonosis

4 diverse human and animal aued by a small  
genus: the ba ill *Listeria monocytogenes*  
The two gam m, member of the family Cory  
substance e h been olated from man d 27  
species of a im ls and birds: 30 countries from  
it Arto to the Tr pi s The epidemiology is n t  
Understood

The organism measured 0.5 by 1-3  $\mu$ . Small rod-shaped and predominantly shows palisade formation and short chains. Yungibolus culture characteristics: tumbling motility with simple medium enhanced by erythromycin with blood or glucose. There are four serotypes (see serology).

Litterous: animal takes many forms such as  
 meningoencephalitis in wine goats and sheep  
 distemper like d a e n d g s a d f o e s g e e r a l  
 and infection in rabbit and guinea pigs with fo  
 liver necro d m a k e d m o c y t s i Abortio  
 with ext n a t t nec o i may occ i rum  
 m a s h a s c a t t i

Septicemia



Diagnosis depends on isolation of *Listeria* from appropriate clinical specimens. Identification is certain if a pure culture is inoculated to the rabbit conjuncta; a produces the characteristic conjunctivitis. An agglutination titer of  $1:400$  in patients' serum is diagnostically significant.

Treatment should be based on *in vitro* antibiotic sensitivity tests on the strain isolated. *See* BACTERIOLOGY MEDICAL CORYNEBACTERIACEAE FISHBENI [RWR]

*Bibliography* H J Dubos (ed) *Bacterial and Mycotic Infections of Man* 3d ed 1958

## Lithium

With an atomic number of 3 and an atomic weight of 6.94, lithium (Li) stands at the head of the alkali metal family, a group Ia in the periodic table of the elements. Lithium in nature is a mixture of the two isotopes  ${}^6\text{Li}$  and  ${}^7\text{Li}$ . Much of the commercially processed lithium in the United States has been subjected to isotopic separation in the interest

A hand-drawn periodic table of elements, showing symbols and names for various elements, including H, He, Li, Be, B, C, N, O, F, Ne, Na, Mg, Al, Si, P, S, Cl, Ar, K, Ca, Sc, Ti, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Ga, Ge, As, Se, Br, Kr, Rb, Sr, Y, Zr, Nb, Mo, Tc, Ru, Rh, Pd, Ag, Cd, In, Sn, Sb, Te, I, Xe, Ba, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Pm, Sm, Eu, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu, Hf, Ta, W, Re, Os, Ir, Pt, Au, Hg, Tl, Pb, Bi, Po, At, Rn, Fr, Ra, Ac, Th, Pa, U, Np, Pu, Am, Cm, Bk, Cf, Es, Fm, Md, No, and Lr.

of obtaining the pre lighter of pe of lithium  
Li The light lithi m m t pe plays n important  
ole m therm ucl pr ces Lith m a ail ble  
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m e than t d es th alkal m tal family f whi h  
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The lem nt wa fir t d co e ed b J A A f ed  
n Swed n dur g ct a lys of p t lite  
Th m tal wa first lated by S II mphry  
II v v 1818 by elect olyst

Uses The major structural uses of lithium in the form of lithium metal are as a thickener for lubricating greases, lithium metal greases, combined with water, in contact with high temperature materials, and in low temperature applications. The alloy of lithium with magnesium is used in specialized greases and they have captured about 25% of the total market. Another important use of lithium compounds is in the petroleum industry. The majority of the lithium for

flux. In ceramic mixtures lithium carbonate readily undergoes the reaction



yielding the  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  as one constituent of the oxide mixtures of which most ceramics are composed. Alternatively lithium aluminum silicate ores can be used directly.

There are a number of uses for lithium and its compounds. Lithium hydroxide is used as an additive to give longer life and higher output in the alkaline storage batteries known as Edison cells. Lithium chloride and fluoride are used in welding and brazing fluxes. Lithium copper and lithium silver alloys are used as self-fluxing brazing alloys. Lithium perchlorate has been suggested as an oxidizer for solid propellant rocket mixture. It offers a higher percentage of available oxygen than any other perchlorate due to the low atomic weight of the lithium.

**Occurrence.** Lithium is a moderately abundant element and is present in the earth's crust to the extent of 65 parts per million (ppm). This places lithium a little below nickel, copper, and tungsten and a little above cerium and tin in abundance. In sea water there is about 0.1 ppm of lithium. It is found in human and animal organisms, in oil, in mineral water, and in plants such as cocoa, tobacco, and seaweed. Its presence in the sun's atmosphere has been established.

Although lithium occurs widely in nature, the concentrations in ores are generally quite low, unlike sodium and potassium, whose relatively pure halides may be mined or pumped from brine wells. Lithium resembles rubidium and cesium in its manner of occurrence, a part of complex silicate mineral. Lithium ores as they are usually expressed in terms of per cent of lithium oxide,  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ , and 10% of  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  afford a commercially processable ore. Most commercial ores run from 1-3%  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ . Virgin ore rarely contains as much as 6%. In North America the most common lithium ore is spodumene which generally occurs in pegmatite formations in association with feldspar. The largest known reserves are in the King Mountain area of North Carolina, in Quebec, and in Manitoba. Substantial quantities of lepidolite and petalite occur in Africa, particularly in Rhodesia. Amblygonite, the other commercially important lithium mineral, is found in Europe, Africa, and South America. A nonmineral source of lithium is the brine in Searle Lake, California. Table 1 lists the important lithium ores.

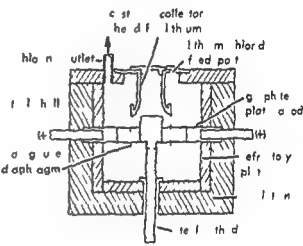
Table 1. Commercially important lithium minerals

Mineral	Simplified formula	% $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$ theoretical
Spodumene	$\text{LiAlSi}_2\text{O}_6$	8.03
Lepidolite	$\text{LiAl}(\text{Si}_2\text{Al})_3\text{O}_{10} \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	4.09
Petalite	$\text{LiAlSi}_3\text{O}_8$	3.89
Amblygonite	$\text{LiAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$	10.10

**Metallurgical extraction.** Lithium ore concentrates from 1-3%  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  to 4-6%  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}$  by heavy media separation using dense nonaqueous liquids and by froth flotation. The concentrates which are then processed most widely are then chemically cleaved by acid or alkaline process.

In the acid process, spodumene ore is first heated in a kiln at about 1000-1100°C to change the naturally occurring alpha-spodumene to beta-spodumene, a more friable less dense crystalline form which is readily attacked by the acid. The ore is then roasted in a second kiln with an excess of sulfuric acid. Water leaching of the kiln product yields lithium sulfate which is treated with sodium carbonate to give lithium carbonate. The carbonate is converted to the chloride by reaction with hydrochloric acid.

In the alkaline process, spodumene or lepidolite ores are ground and calcined with about 3 parts limestone to 1 part lithium ore at 900-1000°C. Water leaching of the kiln product yields lithium hydroxide which is converted to the chloride by reaction with hydrochloric acid.



Cross section of lithium cell

Dry lithium chloride is the feed material for the manufacture of lithium metal by electrolysis. The cell bath is a molten mixture of lithium chloride and potassium chloride. The cell is operated at 100-120°C with a voltage of 8-9 V. The current consumption is about 18 kilowatt hours per pound of lithium produced. The electrolysis is a typical lithium cell.

Thermochemical processes for the manufacture of lithium have been studied but are not applied commercially.

**Physical properties.** The physical properties of lithium metal which make it attractive for many uses are present and potential uses are summarized in Table 2. (The values cited are the most available; there are many values in the literature which agree with them.)

Noteworthy among the physical properties is the high specific heat (heat capacity) for a temperature range of the liquid phase liquid thermal

Tab 2. Physic l propert i lith m met l

Prop rt	Tempe at e		M t ic (sc ntific) u it	H t l (en ee i g) n is
	C	F		
Den ty	0	68	0.331 g/cm	33 lb/ft
	400		0.490 g/	30.6 lb/ft
	800	11	0.1 g/ m	8.6 lb/ft
M l ng po t	1.9	3.4		
Boiling point	131	103		186 Bt /Bt
Heat of	1.9	3.4	103 l/g	81.0 Bt /Bt
Heat of apo ant	131	103	1680 c l/g	111 k t t
Viscos ty	00	39	5.6 mill po ses	8 k t c t
	400		10 mill po ses	6 k t u t
	600	111	3.17 mill po ses	0.01 Bt
l pr pressure			0.8 mm	1 c Bt/n
	10		91.0 mm	
Therm leo d t ity	16	4.0	0.109 c l/(sec)(cm)( m)( C)	6.5 Bt/(f)(ft)( F)
	539	100	0.03 al/(sec)(cm)( m)( C)	1.6 Bt/(f)(ft)( F)
Heat capac ty	100	1	0.90 cal/(g)( C)	0.90 Bt/(Bt)( F)
	300	57	1.0 l/(g)( C)	1.0 Bt/(Bt)( F)
	800	11	0.99 l/(g)( C)	0.99 Bt/(Bt)( F)
Elect cal res t ty	0	3	131 m rol m-cm	
	100	1	1 m rol m-cm	
Surf ce n	00-500	39-93	Abo t 400 dynes/ n	

d i t l w c t y a d y l w d e t y  
Lithum m l sol ble n l q d m a a d  
n l ght soluble in th l w s liph t c m e s  
b a e h l m l t n o b l e n h y d o c l  
There a p b l h e d d t a n the l u b l i t y of  
Lith m e t l s m l t n n g a l t  
Chemical properties Lith m u d g e s l a e  
m b e of c t o t h b t h o g a n i c a d n o r  
t x a t e g l s

Lith m c t a s Lith m r e a t s w t h x y g e n  
m f o r m t h e m n x i d e L i O d t h e p e r v d  
L i O. The p e d L O a n t k n o w n n d  
e a v t e x t b e r u s e f i n s u f f i e t o m f o t w  
p a t o m a r o u d t h e m l l i t h u m a t m  
Lith m i t h e n l y l k l m t l t h a t r e a t w t h  
s i n g t o o m t e m p t u e t f o m a t d  
L i a b h a b l a c k

Lithum c i s a d d i t w t h h y d r g n a t a b u t  
5.0 C i f e m l t h m h y d i d e L i H O f l l t h e  
a l t a m l a b l a h m a c t m o t r a d l y w t h h y  
d r g n n d i t h e n l y l k l s m e t l f o r m g  
b f r i d t b l e g h t b e m l t e d w t h o t d e  
c o m p o s i n A n i m p o r t a n t r a c t n o f L i H t h a t  
n b e B i d d i e t h y l e s t a t B F ( C <sub>2</sub> H ) O  
w y l d d o a n B H a r l i t h m b r h y d i d  
L i H

The r e t n o f l i t h m m t l w t h w a t e r  
c o n d g l g s L i t h u r e t d t l y w t h  
c a r b o n f o r m t h c a b d e L C L i t h u m o m  
p r e s d a y l t h t h l o g e t l a t d t e m  
p r e s f o r m h a l d e w t h t h e c m f  
l i g h t L i t h m d o e t b u n c h l n n l  
b r e d d r s t n l y p e r f i l l y w t h l q u d  
b m p m a b l y b u e f i t h e f i m t n f  
t d e t h l d e t g s  
L i H m L i t h m r e t f o r m t h m d  
L i H Th t n m y b r i e d u t b y h t g  
L i m t n m f m m a a t 400 C o b  
t n t h l q u d m m i n t h p e f

t a l y t c h s i n O n h t u n g t h e a m d e l e s  
a m m i a t f o r m t h m u d e L N H l i t h m i t h  
n l a l k l i m e t l w h i c h f o r m a n m d e

Lithum and carb n m o i d e r e t t g a l t h  
sum arbonyl L C O r a t h e r u n t b l p r d u t

O g a n e c t a s W h e l l i t h u m d n t r t  
w t h p a f f n h y d b n t d e s a n d r g a d d  
t n e a t i o n w t h a v l e t e d a l k e n e s d w t h  
d e Th a d d i t n o f l i t h u m t d e n s y t e m i  
t h e b i f o r t h t l t i p l m e a t n o f d e a  
t v n t h e t i c o m h a n g a t u r l s b b r p r o p  
e t e s O c r e c n t d e l e p e d t h e c r b t m  
p l y l i t h m m t a l d p e d i p e t o l e m j e l l y  
t h a t l t t p o l y m p e n e t s p l y o p e  
t h e x t c t r t r l u t e r p a r t f n t u r l  
h e a r b t f o r m H a b a s i l e s ( r u b b e  
t r e ) L i t h m a l o r e a t s w t h e t y l n i c m  
p u d r p l n g t h a e t y l e n h y d g n t m  
a d f r m g l u t h u m c e t l d e w h c h a e m j o r  
t t i t h s y n t h i f v t m n A

Lith m m e t a l e c t w t h a l c h l f m n g l t h  
u m a l k d e L i O R n d l i b e r a t n g h y d g m A l k  
r d f m l e s e d i l y w t h l i t h m t h m t h e y  
d w t h d m a d t h e m m c i l t i l t y i  
m h i e t h a t a t o f t h s o d m l k x d e s

L i t h m d d t r b y l m p o n d u h  
a l d e h y d e a d k e t n g i l l i t h u m a d d t i o n  
m p n d a n t e m e d a t e w h t h a n b e h y d r o  
l y z e d t o a l h l S u m l y g a l t h m m  
d d a d d t l d h y d e s d k t o n e i n g d d  
i n p o d u t w h t h y e l d a l c o h l s u p o n h y d r o l y s i s  
O g a l t h m m p o n d e a c t w t h o n e c i d  
t g a d d t o p r d t s w h c h a n b e h y d o l y z e d  
t k e t e t h t n u e d n e s t e p o f t h  
t m A y t h

Lith m n a l b e s e d n j u c t o w t h m  
m i r a m n e s t e f f t n s q s e d c t o f a r  
g c m p n d s f e a m p l e t h e r e  
d t f o m a t h y d a b t m o o l f i n

Not only lithium metal but also compounds derived directly from lithium metal are important in organic chemistry. Thus lithium amide  $\text{LiNH}_2$  made from lithium and ammonia is used to introduce amino groups as a dehalogenating agent and as a catalyst. Lithium aluminum hydride  $\text{LiAlH}_4$ , made by the reaction of lithium hydride and aluminum chloride, is a powerful reducing agent for specific linkages in complex molecules. This reagent has become important in many organic syntheses.

**Availability.** Lithium is available in two grades: a regular grade containing 99.8% lithium and a low sodium grade containing 0.005% sodium or less.

The metal is available commercially in the form of shot wire ribbon and in cylindrical bricks. The shot is shipped under hydrocarbon and the wire and ribbon are coated with petrolatum. The bricks (usually one pound in weight) are shipped in hermetically sealed metal cans.

The 1958 lithium metal production rate in the United States was several hundred thousand pounds a year and the price was about \$10 per pound depending on the quantity ordered.

Lithium salts are many times more expensive than the corresponding sodium or potassium compounds. The hydroxide and carbonate in 1958 were 60-90¢ per pound.

**Handling.** Handling of lithium metal is much the same as handling sodium metal with a few specific exceptions:

1. Because lithium reacts with nitrogen, argon or helium must be used instead of nitrogen to blanket molten lithium.

2. Because molten lithium reacts with glass and ceramics, metal equipment must be used.

3. Lithium fires are not easily extinguished by the use of graphite powder, in contrast to the use of the metal halide or carbonate powders for the extinguishing of other alkali metal fires.

4. Lithium behaves differently in the presence of other materials. See Sodium.

**Principal compounds.** The most important lithium compound in terms of major uses and pounds produced is lithium hydroxide. As discussed earlier, it is the end product resulting from water leaching of the clinker produced by limestone roasting of lithium ores. It is also produced from the lithium sulfate from the sulfuric acid roasting process. It is a white powder and the material of commerce is actually lithium hydroxide monohydrate  $\text{LiOH} \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Tallow or another natural fat is cooked with the lithium hydroxide producing lithium stearate which is used as a thickener or gelling agent to transform oil into lithium base lubricating grease. The U.S. Atomic Energy Commission also makes substantial purchases of the hydroxide.

Lithium carbonate  $\text{Li}_2\text{CO}_3$  finds application in the ceramic industries, particularly in the manufacture of frits (powdered glass) for porcelain enamel formulation.

Both lithium halides, lithium chloride and lithium bromide, form concentrated brines having the ability to absorb moisture over a wide temperature range. These brines are used in commercial air conditioning systems. The chloride and fluoride have low melting points, high boiling points and high solvent power for metal oxides. The properties lead to commercial applications in welding and brazing fluxes for aluminum, magnesium and titanium.

Lithium hydride discussed earlier under inorganic reactions of the metal is also of major importance. It was used in large amounts during World War II as a compact source of hydrogen for military balloon inflation. The deuterium formed by lithium-6 can be converted in a thermonuclear reaction to two atoms of helium with the evolution of large amounts of energy. This energy may provide the key to thermonuclear power production.

**Analytical methods.** In most quantitative analytical separations, all other elements are removed, leaving the alkali metal ions in solution. Lithium chloride is separated from the other alkali chlorides by virtue of its greater solubility in organic solvents and then converted to lithium sulfate, dried and weighed.

For qualitative identification of lithium, the characteristic crimson color produced when lithium compounds are introduced into a hot flame is very satisfactory. A flame spectrophotometer may be used to measure the intensity of the characteristic lithium color at 670.8 millimicrons wavelength. This technique is the most suitable for routine determination of lithium because it is fast and accurate. See ALKALI METALS. [MSI]

**Bibliography.** R. N. Lyon, *Liquid Metals Handbook*, 2d ed., Navexos P 733, 1954.

## Lithosphere

A term initially used in a general way to distinguish the rock phase of the earth from the hydrosphere, biosphere, and atmosphere at the surface of the earth. The term lithosphere has been used variously in recent geological literature to designate the crust ("upper lithosphere"), the crust plus the mantle (that is, the total solid phase of the earth) or the entire solid part of the earth (crust + mantle + core). The latter is thought to consist mainly of a mixture of iron and nickel, the mantle mainly of iron and magnesium silicate, and the crust of siliceous rocks with an average composition somewhere near that of granite. See EARTH ELEMENTS (GEOCHEMICAL DISTRIBUTION). LITHOSPHERE, GEOCHEMISTRY OF. See also ATMOSPHERE, BIOSPHERE, HYDROSPHERE. [HDI]

## Lithosphere geochemistry of

The study of the distribution of the elements and of their isotopes in the lithosphere and of their relative abundance both past and present which affects their distribution. The lithosphere contains more than 99% of the mass of the earth. It is therefore by



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## Lithosphere geochemistry of

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## Average chemical composition of sediments and rocks

	Si	SiO <sub>2</sub>	TO <sub>2</sub>	AlO <sub>3</sub>	FeO	Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	MnO	MgO	CaO	Na <sub>2</sub> O	K <sub>2</sub> O	Li <sub>2</sub> O	CO <sub>2</sub>	H <sub>2</sub> O
Sediments and sedimentary rocks														
Calcareous sand oozes	1	18.8	0.3	1.1	3.8		0.1	1.1	39.0	0	0	0	9.8	
Red clay	2	5.8	0.9	16.1	9.0		1.0	2.9		1		0.3	1.6	
Siliceous oozes	3	55.5	0.5	1.1	5.8		0.1	3	9	1.0		0.3	6.9	
Average pelagic sediment	1	8.5	0.1	8.1	0		0.6	1.8	30.5	0.8	1	0	9	
Composition of suboceanic sediments	5	43.7	0.7	11.1	1.6	0.6	0.3	1	11.1	1.1	1.8	0.1	1	
Average sediment	6	11.5	0.6	10.9	1.0	0	0.3	2.6	19	1.1	1.9	0.1	1.1	
Average shale <sup>a</sup>	7	58.10	0.6	15.10	1.0	1		11	3.11	1.30	3	1.01	63.500	
Average sandstone <sup>a</sup>	8	78.33	0.5	1.7	1.07	0.30		1.16	5	0.04	1.31	0.08	5.03	1.63
Average limestone <sup>a</sup>	9	5.19	0.01	0.81	0.51			8.1	1	0.0	0.33	0.04	11.51	0
Average sediment <sup>a</sup>	10	57.9	0.51	13.39	3.1	0.08		6	8.9	1.13	8.6	0.13	38.3	3.3
Igneous rocks														
516 granites <sup>a</sup>	11	70.8	0.1	1.16	1.6	1.8	0.1	0.9		0	1	1.1		
137 granodiorites <sup>a</sup>	1	67	0.6	1.8	1.3	6	0.1	1.1	3.6	1	1.1	0.1		
635 intermediate igneous rocks <sup>a</sup>	13	51.9	1	1.07	3.3	5	0	3.8	6.6	1	3	0.1		
198 basalts <sup>a</sup>	14	49.9	1.1	1.60	5.1	6.5	0.3	1.3	1	1	1	0.1		
18 ultramafic rocks <sup>a</sup>	15	11.0	1.7	6.1	1.5	8.8	0.1	7	10.1	0.8	0.7	0.3		
Average igneous rocks <sup>a</sup>	16	60.1	1.1	1.6	3.1	3.9	0.1	3		3.9	3.1	0.1		
Metamorphic rocks														
quartzofeldspathic gneisses <sup>a</sup>	17	0.7	0.5	1.15	1.6	1.0	0.1	1		3	3.8	0		
103 mica schists <sup>a</sup>	18	6.13	1.0	1	1.16	0.1	7	1	1.9	3	0			
61 slates <sup>a</sup>	19	6.18	0	1.1	3.3	1	0.1	9	1.0	1	3.8	0.1		
100 amphibolite <sup>a</sup>	20	0.3	1.6	1.57	1.6	7.8	0	1.0	9	1	1.1	0.3		
Crust of the earth														
Average composition	21		1.6	1.1	8	5.8	0		8.8	9	1.9	0.3		
Average composition <sup>a</sup>	22	10.18	1.06	1.61	3.11	3.18		3.6	1	3.91	3.19	0.30		

<sup>a</sup> Based on summaries by A. I. Fildervant in *Crust of the Earth*, Geol. Soc. Am. Spec. Paper 6, 1959, and by B. Mason in *Principles of Geochemistry*, 2nd ed., Wiley, 1958.

<sup>b</sup> Values omitted where samples were calculated water free.

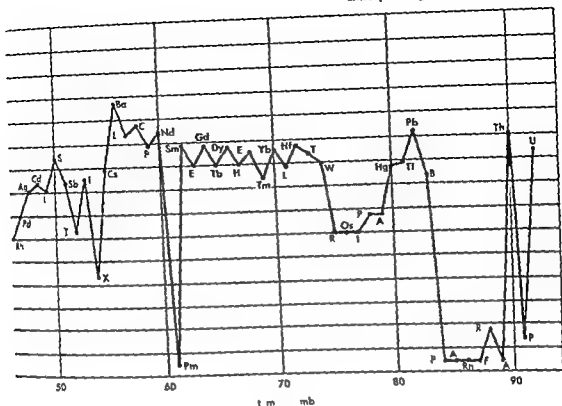
<sup>c</sup> From Fildervant's use of given index number as used in Fildervant.

<sup>d</sup> From Mason.

analyzed although the olivine bombs ejected from a number of volcanoes may well have been derived from the mantle. Present thinking regarding the chemical composition of this portion of the earth is therefore based almost entirely on geophysical evidence and on the circumstantial meteorite evidence. The latter line of evidence suggests that the composition of the mantle is not very different from that of ultramafic igneous rock (see index 15 in the table). The geophysical evidence is in substantial agreement with this hypothesis. However, the evaluation of the density and elastic wave propagation data is at present rather tenuous since observations on the state of silicate minerals at temperatures and pressures characteristic of the middle and lower portions of the mantle are still very fragmentary. At present it seems likely that silicon, oxygen, magnesium, iron, and calcium are in fact the major elements in the earth's mantle, but the crystalline phases in which they occur still remain to be determined. It is also very likely that the mantle at least in its upper portion is more heterogeneous than has usually been assumed and that its structure may be almost as complicated as that of the crust.

Knowledge of the abundance of the minor elements in the mantle is even more fragmentary than that regarding the major elements. Only in the case of the radioactive elements can something be said independent of the meteorite model. The abundance of the elements must be low enough to prevent melting of the mantle, and this must mean that the abundance of potassium, uranium, and thorium must be very much less in the mantle than in the crust. In theory, heat flow measurements can give more definite indications about maximum concentrations of the elements in the mantle. However, the complexities introduced by radiative and convective heat flow in the mantle introduce serious complications into the interpretation of surface heat flow measurements. **5. EARTH HEAT FLOW**

**Chemical composition of the core.** The radius of the earth consists of the material between a depth of 2898 km and the center of the earth. It is similar to the best existing study of the composition of the mantle as a limit study. The core again all data are circumstantial. The most reliable data suggest that the core is composed of iron, nickel, and sulfur. The geophysical data indicate that the



nt egion le rv r = l al crv i de-  
m ded by many pr bl m For sa e n t dia  
f the ge of n g c o u s ck unit th system of  
terest d idual ry t l f th m eral  
w r l ued fo dat g p p e The probl m  
is ge ral terms th c n s t f d termin g the  
erest wh ch h e tak n pla e w th n the sy tem f  
terest and the e t t of exch ng b tw en th  
relem a d t en nment Se ROCK (AGE DE  
TERMINATION)

Chas ges n y tem are f ru k ad Cr  
 tan system p l bly ha e h ng d ath r l t ul m  
 sze a d mp t n d r ng mu b f earth hst r  
 Th co e of the rth may well b on fi jo  
 t m Other y t m h p ob bly grown te d ly  
 thr gh t rth fi t y The hyd o pher t l  
 m t certa ly a e n p nt and th e rth ust  
 n l l m y well h e e d p p ec bly n l  
 ame m th xp n f the e th m ntl Still  
 other y t m th bi ph f r o h e p r bly  
 fl ct d app ably n olum d ring geol g c  
 tim All f thes y tem r t l t part ally  
 t d p e d e n s that th dy m f the e rth  
 r ex eed gly e m pl t d and g n r lly d f  
 f ult t ed t m m ble p port n

The major cycle of my these processes pa  
t p tei whath met bek wn th m j  
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Fig 3 Th w ath r g f igneous sed m t ry  
and m tam rphi ock t th l tho phere tm s  
ph e bo d ry prod es ed m nt These ar  
h r ed d mp ted at d pth to p od ce ed me  
t ry rock At m e elev ted t mpe t o pres

re r b t f e d m e t r y r k re c r y t l l i z t o  
m e t m r p h c k s A t t l l h g h e t e m p e r a t u r e s  
p a r t i f r o m p l i t e m e l t u g m y p r o d e r o c k  
m e l t w h h o o l t f r m g n e o u r k s E x p o u  
o f t h e r k t o w a t h e r i n g p r s e s t h n r e n e w  
t h y l

The th r i p p o e s Th hem al d sequ lib  
 um betw en the tm pher nd many of th r ck  
 typ s e po ed t s o e of th imp ta t fa ts of  
 ge ch m stry The re t ns of hyd ation l i n  
 o dst n nd ca h nat on charact r tuc of the  
 z ne f w ath r ng r pat f ih continuing  
 pr s of the pp o h to equ lib um t the l tho  
 ph e atm phe ho nd ry

The effect of the atmosphere is to oxidize and grow down an air-saturated and depend on the stability of the type of volcanic and on the rate at which a stable mineral appears in a rock of the type. The feldspar pyroxenes and olivine remain in the melt and are destroyed by rock forming minerals of the type of the environment, the removal of the large amounts of  $(\text{Na}^+, \text{K}^+, \text{Ca}^{++}, \text{Mg}^{++})$  is usually added to the remaining minerals, usually hydrous minerals and silicates containing no of these atoms contain them in appreciable quantities than the original mineral. Some unaltered crystalline minerals act as a buffer with the atmosphere. Magnesium, FeO, and of these. The stable oxide of iron is equal to the atmospheric oxygen; in the melt, FeO is a magnesian common constituent of the chondrites accumulate in the residues of the weathering process. Finally, the elements of the

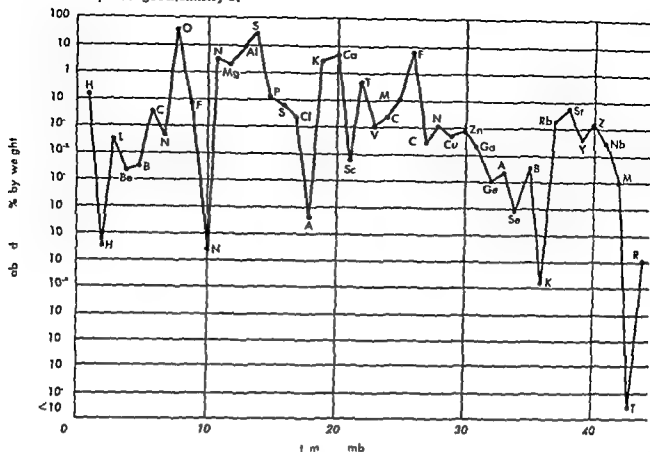


Fig 2 Crustal abundance of elements of atomic number 1-92

fore the advent of x ray crystallography were shown to be quite natural results of their often complicated silicon oxygen framework structures and the development of the crystal chemistry of the silicates has been one of the most significant contributions of mineralogy to geology since 1920 See SILICATE MINERALS

**Processes involving the lithosphere** The earth is not at rest Earthquakes volcanism and mountain building the three major manifestations of disequilibrium at depth are evidence of widespread physical and chemical change below the surface of the earth Erosion and chemical weathering are evidence for the pronounced disequilibrium between the atmosphere and the lithosphere Chemical changes are thus taking place at various levels in the lithosphere and at the boundary between the lithosphere and the atmosphere biosphere and hydrosphere The processes taking place at the earth's surface can be observed directly and are therefore more completely understood than the processes taking place within and below the earth's crust Yet it is just the processes at depth which are of primary interest as a key to the history of the crustal evolution of the earth

For most of the elements the earth can be considered a closed or an almost closed system The two major exceptions to this rule are hydrogen and helium which escape at significant rates from the upper atmosphere Hydrogen escape has probably played an important role in the evolution of the atmosphere from a methane ammonia argon water vapor mixture to its present highly oxidized

state Minor exceptions to the rule are the elements which are entering the atmosphere as constituents of meteorites or as cosmic ray particles or which are swept up by the earth It seems unlikely that these additions have affected the chemistry of the earth materially

The earth can therefore be regarded as an essentially closed system consisting of a number of reservoirs The exchange between these reservoirs may be appreciable and is often a complex function of time In times comparable to the age of the earth the mass and composition of various reservoirs have changed radically The basic problem in the study of the dynamics of geochemistry is of defining suitable reservoirs and of determining the nature and the rates of the processes which are operating on them today and which have done so in the past

The primary division of the earth into the lithosphere hydrosphere and atmosphere is convenient since the limits of these reservoirs are reasonably well defined and their contents of appreciably different kinds The biosphere has a somewhat different status since in space it overlaps the other spheres completely The primary division into four spheres is too coarse for many problems in earth science The subdivision of the lithosphere into crust mantle and core is evidence of the need for further subdivision of the crust into sedimentary and sedimentary rocks metamorphic rock and igneous rocks was implied in the discussion of the average chemical composition of material in these categories Further subdivision of these large units

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## Litopterna

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## Liver

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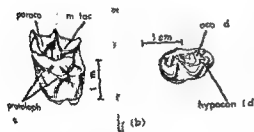


Fig 1 (a) Upper view of (b) lower view of the skull of a Litopterna from the early Miocene of the Patagonian region. Cru format f p r g Ag t



Fig 2 Skull of a Litopterna from the early Miocene of the Patagonian region. Cru format f p r g Ag t (After W S H 1910)

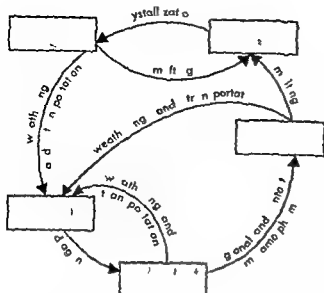


Fig 3 Important features of major geochemical cycle

quartz,  $\text{SiO}_2$  and calcite  $\text{CaCO}_3$  are stable in the zone of weathering. They will only dissolve in rain and ground water until the waters are saturated with respect to  $\text{SiO}_2$  and  $\text{CaCO}_3$ .

The processes of weathering and transport thus alter exposed units of the lithosphere in the direction of equilibrium with the atmosphere but often do not reach this state completely. See WEATHERING PROCESSES.

**Sedimentation and diagenesis:** The processes which take place as sediments enter the oceans are complicated but normally alter their over all chemistry and mineralogy only slightly. However evaporation in closed or partially closed basins can lead to the formation of evaporite beds of composition very different from that of the normal detrital sediments. Sequences of sulfates, carbonates and halides formed in such environments are therefore interspersed with sediments consisting largely of silicates and oxides in stratigraphic columns of many areas. The over all composition of these columns is then on the average appreciably richer in carbon dioxide, water, chlorine, nitrogen, sulfur and boron than average igneous rock. This is not unexpected since  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as well as a geologically important compound of the other elements are in a gaseous state at the temperature of rock melts and are undoubtedly lost preferentially to the earth's surface and incorporated in sediments. See EVAPORITE (SALINE). FUSED SALT PHASE EQUILIBRIA.

After deposition most sediments become buried. They therefore are subjected to higher temperatures and pressures. Under these conditions cementation, loss of porosity and a certain amount of recrystallization take place and sandstone, lime stones and shales (the major types of sedimentary rocks) are formed. Such changes are perhaps most pronounced in the case of carbonaceous sediments. Peat becomes dehydrated and passes through the various grades of coal approaching the composition of graphite with increasing depth of burial. See DIAGENESIS.

**Metamorphism:** At temperatures and pressures higher than those normally encountered in diagenesis, important changes take place in the mineralogy and texture of most sedimentary rock. These changes are termed metamorphism and lead to the formation of metamorphic rocks. It is obvious that there is no sharply defined boundary between diagenetic and metamorphic processes. See METAMORPHISM.

Metamorphism may either be local in nature and in the vicinity of a body of intrusive igneous rock or it may be regional occasioned by a rise in temperature, pressure or both over a considerable area. Reactions in both contact and regional metamorphism are determined by the prevailing pressure and temperature by the composition of the rock units and by the kinetics of the possible reactions. Understanding of these reactions has been increasing especially since the introduction of water as a component in systems studied in the laboratory and the investigation of material transport during metamorphism. Metamorphic reactions are apparently nearly isochemical although the transport of certain elements suggests that small volume of rock undergoing metamorphism cannot safely be regarded as closed systems. See SILICATE PHASE EQUILIBRIA.

**Melting and crystallization:** At still higher temperature melting of rock units begins. The composition of rock melts depends on the composition of the parent material on the ratio of liquid volume to that of the solid residuum on the temperature and pressure during melting and on the degree of equilibrium attained between the liquid and solid phases. The liquid fraction may move into higher levels of the earth's crust and may even break through to the surface as lava or other volcanic products. At the lower temperatures higher in the crust crystallization normally takes place. The nature of the resulting solids is determined largely by the initial composition of the liquid and by the conditions prevailing during cooling. With the aid of pertinent laboratory studies the relationship between many different igneous rock types from the highly silicic granites through the intermediate gabbros to the ultramafic peridotites and dunites have been satisfactorily established although the major question of the origin of the bulk of the igneous rock of the upper crust is still largely unanswered. See MAGMA.

This question leads directly to the question of the nature and extent of exchange between mantle and crustal material and to the exchange of material between the core and the mantle. However a long as knowledge of temperature in the mantle and core and of the behavior and movement of material in the mantle is circumstantial as it is at present the discussion of these questions below the level of the crust is very fruitful.

[1111]

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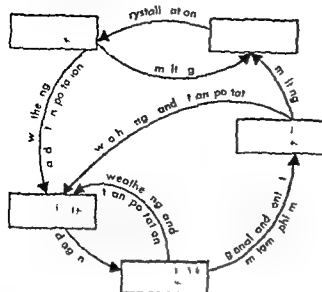


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**Lithography.** W. F. F. Structural Geology, in Crustal Systems and Their Importance, Geological Problems, Coal Soc. Am. Sci. Ser. 1, 1967.

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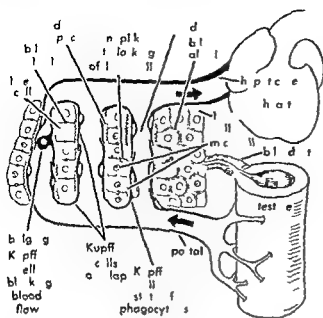


Fig 1 Schematic diagram of the liver as a mass of cells (stippled) based on electron microscopic observations

work of sinusoids. The whole parenchyma is divided into architectural units, the lobules. A lobule is a thumb-shaped mass of cells hexagonal in cross section and drained by a central vein which is a radical of the hepatic vein. Five or six portal canals course along the periphery of the lobule. Between the cells of the hepatic cords or plates are minute ducts, the bile canaliculi, that form a continuous network throughout the lobule and at the portal canals drain into the bile ducts carrying the bile secreted by the cells to the intestine.

### EMBRYOLOGY

**General theory.** According to conventional account the liver arises as a diverticulum from the floor of the foregut. This soon branches into two: the anterior branch destined to form the liver parenchyma and the posterior the cystic duct and gallbladder. Of particular importance is the relationship of the growing liver mass with the large veins that course along it from the yolk sac allantois and the posterior part of the body. As the liver grows and meets the vessels, the vessels are penetrated and broken down into a network of small vessels in the spongework of parenchyma. Throughout the embryonic and fetal period, as long as the yolk sac or allantoic circulation persists, channels carry the major part of the blood through the liver mass but with the cessation of the extraembryonic contributions the channel closes and the portal vein, the sinusoid, and the hepatic vein of the adult form remain (see EXTRAEMBRYONIC MEMBRANES). The history of the vessels and their relation to the liver varies greatly in different vertebrates and it explains the variation of venous patterns in adults from form to form as well as the many anomalies found.

The actual form of the liver in the various vertebrates and in individual species implies that it is

extremely plastic. It has been described as a space-filling mass that accommodates itself to the space available. This concept is to a certain extent supported by the changes in shape that may occur as a growing tumor competes for space or as the shape of the space is changed by tightening of a corset. It seems clear that at least from the point of view of function, the history of the vessels and the shape of the liver as a whole is quite irrelevant. As long as the basic pattern of portal vein sinusoid and hepatic vein persists, the liver functions normally.

**Classical theory.** From the point of view of the classical germ layer theory, the liver has three sources of tissue: (1) the parenchyma is endodermal arising from the floor of the foregut; (2) the sinusoid linings and the hematopoietic cells if present are from the angioblast; (3) connective tissue, particularly in the portal canal, is from the mesenchyme. The surface for the most part is covered by the mesothelium of the peritoneal lining. In recent years, almost every aspect of this point of view has been challenged. It has been asserted that new endothelial lining of the sinusoids and possibly the hematopoietic cells arise in situ from mesenchyme incorporated in the growing liver mass and are thus independent in origin from existing vessels or from the blood land and hence independent of anything corresponding to the angioblast. It has also been asserted on the basis of an extensive review of serially sectioned embryos of a large number of species of all classes of vertebrates that a substantial part of the parenchyma itself may be formed from mesenchyme derived from thickenings of the planctonic mesoderm, much as the adrenal cortex and part of the metanephros are formed. The description of cell origins from static stained sections may lead to a confused and chaotic picture when explanation is difficult and uncertain. On the other hand, the study of cell origins by experimental techniques has proven difficult.

The cell origins of various structures derived from the ectoderm have been extensively studied in the amphibian and avian egg, and the role of interrelations of tissue in induction beautifully demonstrated experimentally. Nothing like this seems to have been demonstrated for structures derived from the endoderm. It seems that in both amphibian and the chick, the structures are self-differentiating from very early stage, perhaps existing as part of the basic pattern of the egg. See FATE MAPS FROM MYOGENIC.

**Role of mesenchyme.** The question of the contribution of the mesenchyme to the cellular pattern and even to the parenchymal mass of a different sort. The angioblast concept would derive all endothelium from the original blood lands by a process of progressive sprouting. Its validity has been repeatedly and emphatically challenged. There is a little doubt that after the pattern of blood and lymph vessels is definitely established, new vessels arise by sprouting from old ones. However, it is definitely asserted that in many parts of

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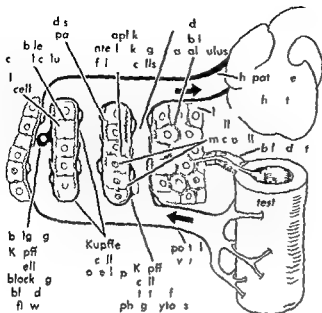


Fig 1 Schematic diagram of the liver as a mass of cells (stippled) based on electron microscopic observations

work of sinusoids. The whole parenchyma is divided into architectural units, the lobules. A lobule is a thumb-shaped mass of cells hexagonal in cross section and drained by a central vein which is a radical of the hepatic vein. Five or six portal canals course along the periphery of the lobule. Between the cells of the hepatic cords or plates are minute ducts, the bile canaliculi, that form a continuous network throughout the lobule and at the portal canals drain into the bile ducts carrying the bile secreted by the cells to the intestine.

### EMBRYOLOGY

**General theory.** According to conventional account the liver arises as a diverticulum from the floor of the foregut. This soon branches into two: the anterior branch destined to form the liver parenchyma and the posterior, the cystic duct and gallbladder. Of particular importance is the relationship of the growing liver mass with the large veins that course along it from the yolk sac allantois and the posterior part of the body. As the liver grows and meets the mesenteric vessels the vessels are penetrated and broken down into a network of small vessels in the spongework of parenchyma. Throughout the embryonic and fetal period as long as the yolk sac or allantoic circulation persists, channels carry the major part of the blood through the liver mass but with the cessation of the extraembryonic contributions the channels close and the portal vein, the sinusoid, and the hepatic vein of the adult form remain (see *EXTRAEMBRYONIC MEMBRANES*). The history of the vessels and their relation to the liver varies greatly in different vertebrates and it explains the variation of venous patterns in adults from form to form as well as the many anomalies found.

The actual form of the liver in the various vertebrates and in individual species implies that it is

extremely plastic. It has been described as a space-filling mass that accommodates itself to the space available. This concept is to a certain extent supported by the changes in shape that may occur as a growing tumor competes for space or as the shape of the space is changed by tight lacing of a corset. It seems clear that at least from the point of view of function, the history of the vessels and the shape of the liver as a whole is quite irrelevant. As long as the basic pattern of portal vein, sinusoid, and hepatic vein persists, the liver functions normally.

**Classical theory.** From the point of view of the classical "germ layer" theory, the liver has three sources of tissue: (1) the parenchyma is endodermal, arising from the floor of the foregut; (2) the sinusoid linings and the hematopoietic cells if present are from the angioblast; (3) connective tissue, particularly in the portal canals, is from the mesenchyme. The surface for the most part is covered by the mesothelium of the peritoneal lining. In recent years, almost every aspect of this point of view has been challenged. It has been asserted that new endothelial lining of the sinusoids and possibly the hematopoietic cells arise *in situ* from mesenchyme incorporated in the growing liver mass and are thus independent in origin from existing vessels or from the blood island and hence independent of anything corresponding to the angioblast. It has also been asserted on the basis of an extensive review of serially sectioned embryos of a large number of species of all classes of vertebrates that a substantial part of the parenchyma itself may be formed from mesenchyme derived from thickenings of the splanchnic mesoderm, much as the adrenal cortex and part of the melanophores are formed. The description of cell origins from static stained sections may lead to a confused and chaotic picture when explanation is difficult and uncertain. On the other hand, the study of cell origins by experimental techniques has proven difficult.

The cell origins of various structures derived from the ectoderm have been extensively studied in the amphibian and avian egg, and the role of interrelations of tissues in induction beautifully demonstrated experimentally. Nothing like this seems to have been demonstrated for structures derived from the endoderm. It seems that in both amphibians and the chick the structures are self-differentiating from very early stages, perhaps existing as part of the basic pattern of the egg. See *FATE MAPS, EMBRYONIC*.

**Role of mesenchyme.** The question of the contribution of the mesenchyme to the vascular pattern and even to the parenchymal mass is of a different sort. The angioblast concept would derive all endothelium from the original blood islands by a process of progressive sprouting. Its validity has been repeatedly and emphatically challenged. There seems little doubt that after the pattern of blood and lymph vessels is definitely established, new vessels do arise by sprouting from old ones. However, it is definitely asserted that in many parts of

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Role of mesoderm The concept of the mesen-  
 chyme becomes still more important when the con-  
 tribution of the mesoderm to the development of  
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 that in some invertebrates forms the splanchnic  
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 tion of the mesoderm is most conspicuous in forms  
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is a large flat sheet of cells and the hema-  
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velop The most considerable evidence of this such  
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Structural development The development of  
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 drainage system has been studied in the roughly in  
 mammals The anlage of the blood vessel is ordinarily  
 situated in the mesoderm and the blood vessel is  
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 process of formation of a blood vessel is considered to  
 be a process of penetration of a large vein by the cells in such a  
 way that they become completely surrounded by  
 endothelium This reduces the former cylindrical  
 vessel to a network This process was named inter-  
 cellular by F. T. Lewis The concept of the liver  
 cord has been challenged with considerable justifi-  
 cation by H. Elias since in the adult the portal  
 lymphatic cell occurs in plates rather than in cords  
 of plates of cells as frequently demonstrated in H  
 even in the chick at least a study of the early de-  
 velopment of the portal system has led to the con-  
 clusion that the basic form is indeed the cord with  
 the plates produced by widening of the cords to  
 form what has been designated as a multilaminar  
 by J. Kingbury rather than a network In any case  
 there are at first neither bile plates nor a bile  
 drainage system The part of the duct that

is formed by the bile duct ends abnormally at the liver  
 mass and the role of the cells are usually with the  
 cord of the portal system The liver has been  
 likened to the glands of the digestive tract with  
 the liver cords equivalent to the alveoli and the  
 bile capillaries of the portal system The pattern of  
 development is however quite different from the  
 duct does not branch repeatedly with a pampiniform  
 anastomosis of the cords of each branch but rather the  
 cords themselves branch freely and anastomose to  
 form a three-dimensional network in which the  
 bile capillaries of the portal system are bedded  
 There is thus a stagnation of the blood of the lobular  
 structure of the whole mass is considered as a  
 lobule with blood entering through a vein at one  
 end passing through a capillary network and  
 leaving at the other

Growth A large mass engulfs the portal  
 mass as it frequently does the portal  
 system The portal system with a sheath of connective  
 tissue The portal system of the digestive tract will  
 later become the bile duct system with the stom-  
 ach and the liver The portal system is continuous with the  
 liver cord The branches of the bile duct that  
 accompany the branches of the portal system with the  
 liver mass are embedded in the cords of cells and  
 enter the mass and connect it The bile  
 capillaries are apparently beginning sporadically  
 in the liver places and in the mass  
 forming a network of portal lymphatic cords to  
 form a network that eventually expands until they  
 become confluent, forming a single continuous  
 network

Development of the portal system next to the portal  
 system of the digestive tract and the connective tissue  
 of the liver and the connective tissue of the liver  
 the liver mass is produced the portal system of the  
 digestive tract and the liver mass of the digestive tract

canal next to the portal vein is of thin pavement like cells and the opposite side is of cuboidal parenchymal cells with the bile capillaries between them emptying into the widened lumen. As the connective tissue develops it surrounds the cord completely and the latter become completely transformed into a thin walled tube similar to the cholangiole of the adult liver. Cholangioles thus developed form a continuous network surrounding the portal vein. Only later do more conspicuous channels appear in the network with walls thickened to form the bile duct. Although the latter appear to run parallel to the branches of the vein they actually still form a much elongated and attenuated cylindrical network. Only at the end where the finer branches follow the terminal branches of the portal vein into the liver mass do they continue to receive bile capillaries. The remainder of the original thin walled network diminishes as the definitive ducts appear and finally seems to disappear entirely for the cell that formed it cannot be identified in the portal canals. Finally with the completion of the portal canal the network of parenchymal cell cords adjacent to it widens and fuses to form a continuous limiting plate. Where the anlage of the extrahepatic duct come in contact with the new duct formed in the liver mass the lumens become continuous thus establishing the definitive bile drainage system. The process of duct formation within the liver mass continues as long as the liver continues to grow by the development of new lobules. In the rat which has no gallbladder a more extensive part of the primitive thin walled network becomes converted into ducts than in the mouse which has a gallbladder. It is to be emphasized that in the original description of the canal of Hering the subject was an infant. One seeks in vain to find such a structure in the normal adult liver where the bile capillaries empty directly into short thin walled cholangioles which in turn drain into the terminal branches of the bile ducts.

**Growth** The growth of the liver by the increase in the number of lobules is a process of intussusception. The growth occurs throughout the liver mass and not by addition to the surface. As the mass of the liver increases so does that of the individual lobule. As the lobule increases the portal vein branches and the amount of parenchyma remains constant with respect to the amount of vein. With the production of new canals of Hering and finally of ducts the connective tissue and portal vein penetrate the liver mass as before. Corresponding to this new channels appear in the muoidal network opposite the portal canal which are continuous with the hepatic vein to form the central veins of the new lobules. The lobules of the liver are remarkably constant in size throughout and remain constant as the liver grows. The terminal branches of the portal veins are equidistant from the central veins throughout. This relationship is considered to be developed and maintained by hemodynamic action according to a theory de vel-

oped by K. Thoma and applied to the liver by F. P. Mall.

Thus in the development of the cytoarchitecture of the liver the bile capillaries seem to arise autonomously in the liver cords the bile ducts by an inductive action of the portal connective tissue and the lobular pattern by hemodynamic action as the mass increases. [J. W. W.]

#### ANATOMY

**Human anatomy** Both function and structure of the liver can be understood only if one knows how this organ is associated with the blood stream and the intestine. Both histologically and anatomically the human liver is one of the simplest of vertebrate livers and is used here as a model for the vertebrate liver.

**Blood supply** The blood which streams through the spleen and through the capillary bed of the stomach and intestine is collected by veins which converge into a wide but short vessel known as the portal vein. This vessel enters the liver through the porta hepatis or the door of the liver whence

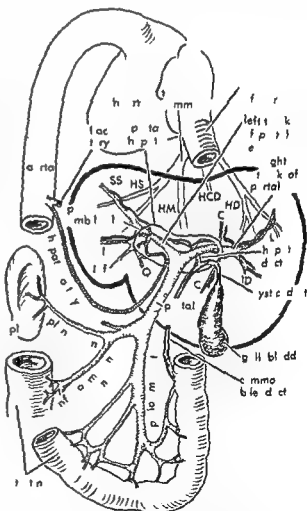


Fig 2 Schematic diagram of human liver and its major blood vessels. R. m. = right lobe. C. n. = central vein. I. = inferior vena cava. Inf. f. = inferior vena cava. L. = left lobe. Q. = quadrate lobe. SS. = superior vena cava. V. = hepatic vein. H. = hepatic duct. D. = duodenum. G. = gallbladder. B. = bile duct. M. = mesentery. P. = portal vein. S. = stomach. T. = transverse colon. I. = inferior mesenteric vein. A. = abdominal aorta. P. = portal vein. S. = superior vena cava. V. = hepatic vein. H. = hepatic duct. D. = duodenum. G. = gallbladder. B. = bile duct. M. = mesentery. P. = portal vein. S. = stomach. T. = transverse colon. I. = inferior mesenteric vein. A. = abdominal aorta.

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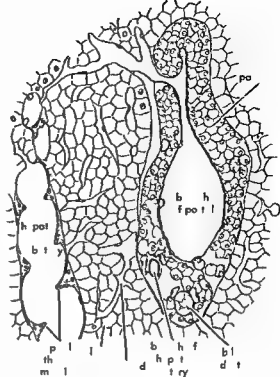


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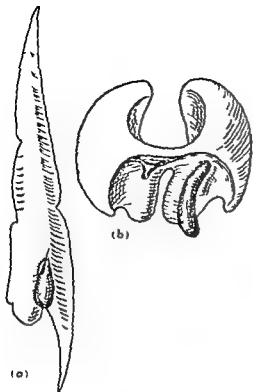


Fig 4 (a) Dorsal aspect of liver of *Amphibaena darwini* a lizard (Rev Museo Argentino de Ciencias Nat 3165 1957) (b) Liver of *Alligator mississippiensis*

half. During metamorphosis the liver loses its duct system and shrinks to form a ringlike mass behind the pharynx. Among the Selachii the liver is horseshoe shaped and the free ends point caudad. It has a very high fat content. The shape of the liver in the Teleostei undergoes many variations. In many teleost and ganoid species the pancreas is located within the portal canals.

The liver of the caecilians *Apoda* is divided into numerous lobes which cover each other in a shinglelike fashion. They are all connected by a narrow longitudinal bridge. The liver of salamanders and newts *Caudata* is lobated in some species and unified in others. The liver of the frogs and toads *Salientia* consists of two large lateral lobes connected by a broad median portion. The liver of the amphibians receives venous blood not only through the portal vein but also from the lower extremities through the abdominal vein.

The unified liver of snake *Serpentes* and lizards *Sauria* is adapted to the shape of the body. The liver of turtle *Chelonia* and crocodiles *Crocodylia* consists of a right and a left portion connected by a narrow isthmus.

The liver of birds is a rather unified bilobed organ.

Among the mammals with unified livers are the *Ruminantia*, the *Cetacea* and some *Hominoides* such as man, the orangutan, chimpanzee and gibbon, but the gorilla has a lobated liver. The livers of all other mammals the anatomy of which has been recorded are lobated.

In unified livers the hepatic veins run at almost right angles to the portal canals but in lobated

livers with deep incisions between lobes the large hepatic veins run parallel to the large portal canals and crossing occurs only among the smaller vessels. In lobated livers partial hepatectomy is easy but surgery on unified livers is very difficult.

Among mammals there is a remarkable uniformity in the pattern of branching of the portal and hepatic canals. In spite of differences in external lobation the only basic variation in the vascular pattern is the location of the bifurcation of the common portal vein relative to the origin of the ramus centralis.

#### HISTOLOGY

The structure of this organ of multiple function is remarkably uniform throughout the phylum of the vertebrates.

**General morphology.** The liver of all vertebrates, with the exception of adult *Petromyzomidae* is a

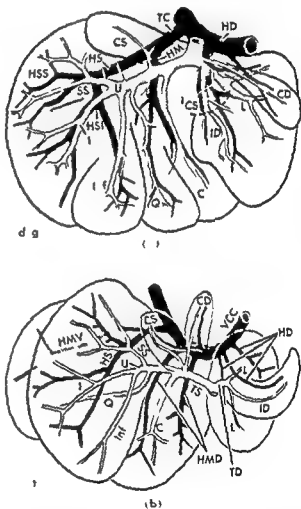


Fig 5 (a) Dorsal aspect of liver of dog (b) Liver of cat. Ramus venae portae C = colli, I = interlobular, ID = inferior, de = dexter, Inf = inferior, s = sinister, I = lateralis, Q = quadratus, SS = superior, sn = sinister, V = venae hepaticae, HD = hepatic duct, HM = media, HMV = ventral division of media, HMD = dorsal division of media, HS = sinister, HSI = sinister, rad = radical, inf = inferior, HSS = sinister, rad = sinister, Ramulus CD = caudatus, de = dexter, CS = caudatus, nite = nite, TS = tunica communis, TV = venae portae, TD = dexter, TC = sinister, U = pars umbilicalis, VCC = vena caecalis, f = for.

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**Canal system** Th l ■ pervaded by two sys  
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**Portals** The b ch g of th port l nal  
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**Lumen of portal** E h po t l d h p t u c l s  
 Ered b gle l ye fl ll th l m t g  
 plates. The nte rgn als limited t w d s  
 m cr by a e t r all m t g plat

All th l m t g p l s th e t e r n l the p  
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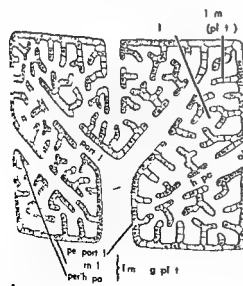


Fig. 4. Sch at diag m f th l l t ruct f

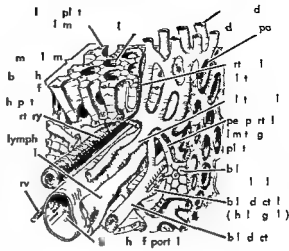


Fig 7 Sh m t d g m f p r t l w th d g l t

**portal m** Th periportal and perihepat l m t ng  
 pl tes have nume ous mall ope ing th t the  
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 b l d l n b th c a n l s y s t e m s

The e t r l u u n d d by a fib u s p  
 u l e e d at most pla by p e s t o n e l m s o  
 the l m Th n t e t e of th fib ous p  
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 s y s t e m n d r i e s b l o o d e l d u c t l y m p h  
 l n d n e r v d p t t h e o r g

**Cellular morphology** Th l t s s e c o m  
 ■ e d f t w k d f l l th h p t l l s  
 l (p a r n h y m l) c e l l s a d t h k p f f c e l l  
**Kupff l l** The e l l ■ th p e l d  
 e t u l n d t h e l a l l w h i l n the n u s d s  
 A l t h g h c e l l b n d e s c a n b d e m t r t d b y  
 t h l e t r t m t h o d n m m n d t h e l m  
 t h u s n t p b l e n t h e o f t h l n g f t h  
 l e t s o d H e n t w b e l e v d t h t t h u  
 o d w l l w s o f a y n y t l h a t H w e v e  
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 d d u l t y f t h e l l T h e y h a l l o p e d  
 m g s n d l p T h K p f f c e l l r p t  
 t l p h c y t e T h e n m b o f K u p f f e c e l l a t t  
 p h g c y t e s d p d s n t h e d s f t h m e t  
 d g t M K e l y E B l h a n d L W a r n  
 (1948)

**Th k p f f l l** h e the ability t b l k  
 t h l i d f l o w t h r g h the u d s b y b u l g  
 t t h l m t h l d g t I t p p ■ u n d r  
 t h p t l m p e t t t h s d f i l l t h e  
 t l d g l f T h p a c b e t w n t h r  
 w l l d t h l i e l l k w n s D s e p a e w  
 t h g h t h y m y t b e n t f t f h r i k a g e T h  
 l e t r m c o p c w k m d e t o b o s t h a t t h  
 p n d l p a r l t y l s d n g l f e



**Liver cells or hepatic cells** These are the components of the hepatic muralium. The shape and volume of each hepatic cell depend on its location in the muralium. A cell touching a hole in a liver plate the smallest type may have the shape of a pentahedron with an approximate volume of  $10\ 000\ \mu^3$  whereas the cell which is located at the junction of three laminae the largest type may have an approximate volume of  $35\ 000\ \mu^3$ .

The nucleus of the liver cell is spherical and contains a large nucleolus. Some nucleoli are basophilic and others are acidophilic. Small liver cells  $10\ 000\ 20\ 000\ \mu$  have one nucleus each but larger liver cells may have two or three nuclei. The liver cell contains pile of electron microscopically demonstrable double membrane the endoplasmic reticulum and spherical to rod shaped mitochondria with internal double membrane. The liver cells are fastened to each other by club shaped projection of cytoplasm of one liver cell which fits into depressions of the adjacent liver cell in the manner of nails. Another mechanism of holding the liver cell together is provided by the polygonal network of bile canaliculi. The canaliculi. Each mesh of this network surrounds a liver cell. Because the walls of the bile canaliculi are tough this network gives the muralium a strong support. The walls of the bile canaliculi are condensations of exoplasm of the hepatic cell and it appears in electron microgram that through the wall of the bile canaliculi adjacent liver cells are continuous with each other. Microfilaments project into the lumen of the bile canaliculi.

The facet of the liver cells in contact with laminae is studded with short microvilli. The space between these microvilli is the perisinusoidal space of Disse.

**Comparative histology** Most lower vertebrates have laminae hepatis predominantly two cell thick the muralium duplex but the mammals and the songbird Passeriformes as well as a few lower birds have liver cell plate one cell thick the muralium simplex. In Amphibia there is a mixture of muralium duplex and muralium simplex. The latter is predominant in amphibian larvae.

**Minute vascularization** The portal venous blood enters into the network of sinusoid through short side branches the inlet venules of small portal vein branches. The inlet venules pierce the limiting plate.

In man the smaller branches or axial distributing veins of the portal vein which are  $280\ \mu$  or less in diameter give rise to inlet venules all along their course. The larger ramus or conducting vein  $400\ \mu$  and thicker do not give rise to inlet venules. The tissue surrounding them however is very well vascularized by side branches the marginal distributing vein which runs parallel to the large veins or surrounds them spirally. The efferent arterial giving rise to inlet venules.

In the rat the large portal vein ramus does not give rise to inlet venules and only rarely to marginal distributing veins so that the tissue surrounding

ing large portal canal is poorly vascularized. All portal vein branches in the mouse give rise to inlet venules as a result all periportal areas are well vascularized.

In man the sinusoids enter the smallest tributaries of the hepatic or central veins only whereas in the rat and mouse sinusoids enter the hepatic veins of every caliber.

Thus the livers of both man and the mouse are well supplied with portal blood and the liver of the rat possesses areas poorly supplied with portal blood. On the other hand the liver of the rat and mouse are well and evenly drained whereas the drainage of human liver tissue must go through the narrow bottlenecks of the junctions of central veins with sublobular veins.

The hepatic veins of the dog, cat and a few other species are surrounded by spiral muscles which can contract on histamine stimulation. The efferent muscles play a role in anaphylactic shock. In most animals there are no such muscles.

The hepatic arteries give rise to capillary network around the bile duct. The venous blood from the periductal networks drains into portal inlet venule. Other and more important termination of the hepatic arteries pierce the limiting plate and penetrate to various depths in the liver tissue. They open into sinusoids at all levels between the portal and hepatic canal.

**Lymphatics** Tissue fluid flows from the spaces of Disse into the space at the periphery of the portal canal. From there it must filter through the connective tissue of the portal canals and through the endothelium of the lymph vessels which are present in great abundance in the portal canal.

In the dog in addition to periportal lymph vessels there is a vast lymphatic plexus around the hepatic veins.

It is obvious that the specific differences in vascularization render the application to man of experimental results obtained in animals somewhat problematic.

**Lobules** Under normal conditions the sinusoids run radially toward the small tributaries of the hepatic vein. This pattern gives the liver the appearance of lobulation. The center of a hepatic lobule is occupied by a central vein the smallest hepatic vein. The portal canals appear between the lobules and the smaller portal vein branches are sometimes called interlobular veins. The lobulation of the liver is however only an expression of the portohepatic blood pressure gradient for when the blood pressure in the hepatic vein is elevated so that in the portal vein lowered as may happen in disease such as heart failure and tumors the lobular pattern is reversed. When it is done experimentally by ligation the lobular reversal occurs in 2 minutes. In the case of the sinusoids radiate from the portal canal which appears now as centers of lobule. In the pig racoon and pig heart liver cells along plane connecting neighboring portal canals begin to degenerate about a year after birth. In these planes connective

cepta develop which give the liver the capacity to perform its biological functions. The liver has been interpreted as a purely portal organ with biological functions. See CARBONIOS and LUDWIG (BIOCHEMISTRY)

PHYSIOLOGY

The majority of the liver's functions appear to be that of the digestive system of food. The concept is suggested by the liver's role in the development of the embryo. All residues added by the digestive tract to the body are taken up by the liver which occurs in amphibians.

Food storage and use. The liver stores food deposited in the glycogen by the growing embryo. It is a rich blood vessel with the many blood cells. The blood vessels coalesce and become the ducts for the liver and add the yolk fluid enclosed in the cell between the membranes of the liver.

At birth the liver is assumed to be the tadpole stage. Then the liver is the portal system. The liver is used on and with the liver and bring the blood to the liver. The liver is the first to be affected by the liver and all the liver cells are affected by the liver. The liver is the first to be affected by the liver and all the liver cells are affected by the liver.

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including all of the blood draining from the intestine See LIVER

**Cirrhosis** Cirrho is the term applied to the end stage of carrying of the liver. It may follow repeated minor insults or a single sudden massive injury. The more common causes are nutritional deficiency as shown in the illustration (Laennec or portal cirrhosis), viral infection and injury by chemical agents (poisonous cirrhosis), obstruction of the drainage of bile from the liver (biliary cirrhosis) and prolonged and severe heart failure (congestive or cardiac cirrhosis). Since the use of antibiotics, syphilis has become relatively uncommon as a cause of cirrhosis at least in the regions where antisyphilitic therapy is available. Because the liver has a large functional reserve, minor degrees of cirrhosis may have little physiological effect. More severe instances of the disease however lead to early death.

**Malnutrition** Nutritional disease of the liver is seen particularly after prolonged and excessive use of alcoholic beverages but may occur as a result of malnutrition from any cause and may even develop spontaneously in animals. The dietary deficiency is not a lack of sufficient calories but an inadequacy of a few essential foodstuffs particularly the amino acid choline. Under the conditions, massive amounts of fat first accumulate in the liver cells enlarging the cells and thickening the liver itself. Such large fatty livers may have impaired function and are unduly susceptible to further injury from many toxic agents to which the liver may be exposed. Sudden unexplained death of many liver cells may occur at this fatty stage, lowering the function of the organ below the level essential for life of the individual. More often the disease progresses insidiously and persistently with the development of fibrous scarring and with disorganized regeneration of liver tissue.

After a period of many months or years the entire architectural pattern of the liver is distorted

and replaced by small and large nodules of disorganized liver cells separated by bands or ep of connective tissue. With this progressive fibrosis and distortion there also occurs significant change in the small blood vessels in the liver seriously altering its blood supply. The small veins draining blood from the liver become narrowed and the flow of blood through the liver is impeded. Because this obstruction pressure rises in the portal vein which carry the blood from the gastrointestinal tract to the liver and new channels develop to carry the blood around rather than through the liver. Particularly important among these latter channels are veins beneath the mucosa of the esophagus (varices) which may become eroded and lead to the source of massive hemorrhage. In late stages of the disease the amount of blood reaching liver cells may be insufficient to maintain the bare essential function. The patient then dies in hepatic failure with alterations in the blood protein, accumulation of fluid in the body cavities and the accumulation in the blood of toxic metabolic products such as ammonia. See MALNUTRITION METABOLIC DISORDERS.

**Viral infections** Viral hepatitis the most important infectious disease of the liver may be caused by either of two closely related viruses. The two agents produce identical changes in the liver but differ in their mode of spread and in the latent period between the invasion of the host and the manifestation of disease. In one case the organisms are acquired by the oral route (infected food or water). In the other case they are acquired by the injection of serum from a patient with the disease or carrying the virus. The former disease is called infectious hepatitis the latter homologous serum hepatitis. Jaundice is the striking clinical feature of viral hepatitis although other symptoms such as malaise, abdominal pain and loss of appetite may also be distressing. The effects of the virus on the liver are characterized by injury and death (necrosis) of isolated liver cells or groups of liver cells and by an accumulation throughout the liver of large numbers of mononuclear white blood cells. Drainage of bile through the tiniest bile channels the canaliculi is impaired and bile accumulates there and in the liver cell themselves. In the more severe case necrosis of liver cells may be so widespread that death of the patient occurs early in the illness. Usually however complete healing occurs after a few weeks with no residual alteration in the structure or function of the organ. In a few instances when the disease is protracted in its course or is associated with severe but nonfatal necrosis postnecrotic cirrhosis may result. The architecture is then distorted by wide bands of connective tissue and large bizarre nodules of regenerated liver tissue. This postnecrotic cirrhosis is also associated with a curbar of traction and its complication just as in the portal cirrhosis of nutritional liver disease. See JAUNDICE.

Yellow fever is another virus disease affecting the liver. It is spread by certain mosquitoes and



Portal (Laennec's) cirrhosis of the liver. The normal unit form architectural pattern has been destroyed and replaced by large and small nodules of regenerated liver tissue separated by bands and septa of connective tissue. This is the edge of a large scar removed from the liver.

including all of the blood draining from the in  
 testing See Liver

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feature of viral hepatitis although other symptoms  
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complication jaundice is the portal cirrhosis of nu-  
 tritional liver disease. See JAUNDICE.

Yellow fever is another virus disease affecting  
 the liver. It is spread by certain mosquitoes and

geographically distributed in Africa and South America. It is recognized and recognized from the results of the necropsy. It is a disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa.

**Bacterial infections.** Bacterial infections of the liver are often secondary to infection of the primary site. In the case of the liver, the infection is usually spread to the liver from the gall bladder up to the gall bladder. It is a disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa.

**Parasites.** Parasitic infections of the liver are the most common. The most common is the liver fluke, which is a parasite of the liver. It is a disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa.

**Chemical agents.** The type of injury caused by chemical agents is usually of the liver. It is a disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa.

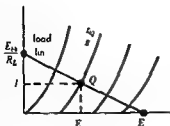
The most important factor in the formation of a bonnet is the pharynx, the pharynx, and the pharynx. It is a disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa.

**Obstruction.** Biliary cirrhosis is the end result of prolonged obstruction of the drainage of bile from the liver. In the case of the liver, the obstruction is usually spread to the liver from the gall bladder up to the gall bladder. It is a disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa.

**Other diseases.** There are several obscure diseases which may affect the liver along with other organs. In amyloidosis, the peculiar chemical deposits characteristic of this disease are found in the liver as well as in other tissues. The obscure chronic inflammatory disease called sarcoidosis is commonly found in the liver. Wilson's disease, a hereditary toxic degeneration, is a disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa.

**Tumors.** Tumor of the non-malignant type are in the liver. The most common is the neoplasm of blood vessels called hemangiomas. These are usually of the benign type and are found in the liver. It is a disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa. It is a fatal disease of the liver and is caused by the same virus that is responsible for infecting the liver in South Africa.





Load line d n pl te c r r t h m t c s

the l t g p l t e u r r e t t o p l a t e o l t g e a d  
g r i d l i g e i s t h w a l y t l l y A e t o f  
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b e a l t a l p l a t e r n t w h i s e q l  
u E R h e e R L s t h l d r e t c e T h e  
f u e n c t p l e u r r t l a n d p l a t e l i g E p  
a d u b e r t Q w h e t h e c r v e f o t h a l u e o f  
g r i d a s u n t r i t h l a d l i n e

I f t h e t b e l f b d b y c t h d e e t  
t h e l o a d l i n d n b y t h p r e d r t e  
t h e l o a d l i n d n b y t h p r e d r t e  
t h e l o a d l i n d n b y t h p r e d r t e  
t h e l o a d l i n d n b y t h p r e d r t e

L d l e a r e l u d w t h a t c t s  
a d o i b n n l n r d e t o d e t m n t h q  
a t p o t

# Loading electrical

The d d t f d u t e t i m n l n  
u d e r t m p t t r a m n h t t c  
e r t h e q e d f r q c v b n d L o a d g c l  
t h e n i n v e r t e d n t l p h e l t p g a  
b e a l m l e t u t e a t h a p t a c e f  
l e l n d t h m l e t h l m p e d c e m r  
l o a d q l t t a p t e S m l a  
h a r q l t t a p t e S m l a  
a r t e m S T r a i s t o v l l f  
t h l b l s d a g d e v l d g  
t h d t h d f i t h l b o r b l l p  
t h g t h n d t h e b y a h i e g n n f l e c t n g  
r t h l y e c t u d f t h p r  
t h e m y b e t a p e r e d m t l e s w e d g f l  
t h e n t m m l t p e e d e c t f r d t  
t h e l o a d l i n d n b y t h p r e d r t e  
t h e l o a d l i n d n b y t h p r e d r t e  
t h e l o a d l i n d n b y t h p r e d r t e

o f l d i n g n e d e d f o r r o n a n c e A n e x a m p l e  
p r a c t i c a l l y l l t o r a d h a e l o a d n g c o i l n  
t h n t n n a c t b c a u e t h e u s a l w h i p a n t e n n a  
i m u c h t h r t f r b a d e a t h a n d f r e q e c s  
S A N T E N N A (A E R I A L) [ J M R ]

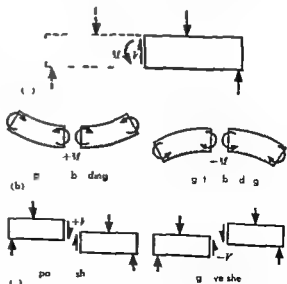
## Loading transverse

F o r c e s a p p l d p e r p d i c u l l y t o t h e l n g i t u d n l  
a x i s o f a m e m b e r T r a n s e r l o a d m a u e t h e  
m e m b e r t b e n d a d d e f l e t f m i t g i n a l p i  
t w i t h n t e n a l t l e a d c o m p r e s s i t a i s  
a c c o m p a n y g c h a n g n e u r t r e

C o c e n t r e d l o a d s a r a p p l d o e r a r a s  
l e g t h s w h h a e e l a t i v e l y s m a l l c o m p r e d t o  
t h e d m e n o f t h m e m b A g l e r u l t t  
f o r c e u e d t a n l y z e e f f t s n t h e m m b r  
E m p l s a r e h e a y m c h n o c c p y n g l m i t d  
f l o o a r e a w h e l l d s n a r a i l r a t i e o d t  
t a c h e d l o c l l y L o d m a y b e t t o n r y r t h e y  
m y l i m o i g a s w i t h t h e c a g f c a e  
h t o w i t h r k w h e l

D i t b u t d l a d s o f f o r c e s a p p l i e d c n t m l y  
e l g e a r s w t h u f o r m n o n n i f r m n e  
t e t y C l e l y t a k d c e n t e n o w h o  
f l o o r s n o w n w i n d p r e u r a r e u i f r m l o a d  
A e q l e n t i f o r m l a d m y e p r e t m l t p l e  
c l y p e d n e t r t e d l o a d V a r i a b l y d a s t r  
b u t d l a d t e n t i e n l d e f o u n d a t n o i l  
p r e s e s a n d h y d o t t c p r e

B e n d i n g a n d s h e a r T a n r f o e s p d e  
b d i g m m t d t r s v e h e a r n g f c e s t  
e y c t w h m t h e b l c e d b y n t e a l  
c p l e e t i g m m e n t V n d a n t e r l  
t a n g t a l h e f o f ( F g l ) T h e e c m  
p n t f r e s e e l t d b y f e e b o d y a l y  
T h b d i g m m e t a d r u l t n t h e a f o e  
a n b e x p e d a l y t a l l y a f n e t n o f t h e  
l o a d a d t h d t n l o m g t h t i n f o m a



F g l B m l o a d g l y s ( ) B y f b d y n l  
y f b m (b) C o t f g f h

cause death by the massive replacement of functioning hepatic tissue by nonfunctioning tumor tissue. The liver is probably the most common location for the secondary spread of neoplasms. It is the growth of these metastatic tumor nodules in the liver which is the ultimate cause of death in many individuals with cancer of the bowel, breast, lung, or other tissues. See NEOPLASIA ONCOLOGY

[M R H]

**Bibliography** S. L. Robbin *Textbook of Pathology* 1957 L. Schiff (ed.) *Diseases of the Liver A Symposium* 1956 H. A. Smith and T. C. Jones *Veterinary Pathology* 1957

### Living fossils

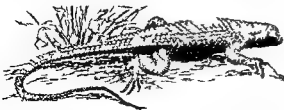
Living species belonging to ancient stocks other than those known only as fossils. They commonly reveal anatomical structures and phylogenetic relationships that at best could only be inferred from the fossils. A good example is the mollusk *Neopilina galathea* dredged from the floor of the Pacific Ocean in 1951. Its known ancestors (family Tryblididae) occur in early Paleozoic rocks and were inferred to have been very primitive snails having bilateral symmetry and thus representing a stage preceding the torsion that characterizes all other gastropods. The living species prove this inference to be correct but its segmented body also shows that this group constitutes a new class more primitive than the other mollusk ancestral to both the chitons and the gastropods and in turn related to the annelid worms. See MONOPLACOPHORA

Other examples are the horseshoe crab *Limulus*, the opossum *Didelphus*, the coelocanth fish *Latimeria* discovered off the east coast of Africa in 1939 and such plants as *Metasequoia* discovered in China in 1941 and the *Cynkgo* whose ancestors thrived with the dinosaurs. See MARSUPIALIA XIPHOSURA

[C O D]

### Lizard

Any of about 3000 species of reptile of the suborder Lacertilia order Squamata. Lizards are found in temperate and hot climates throughout the world. Typically they are covered with epidermal scales, have moderately elongated bodies, a tapering tail, and two pairs of strong legs on which they run swiftly. Most lizards are terrestrial but many are arboreal and several are fossorial or aquatic. Degeneration of the limbs has progressed in different groups and a few forms are legless.



The fence lizard *Sceloporus undulatus* length to 5 1/2 in. (From E. L. Pomeroy *Feldbook of Natural History* McGraw-Hill 1949)

cluding one common species in the United States, the glass snake or joint snake.

Many lizards are feared as being poisonous but this is true only of the Gila monster and its close relative, the Mexican beaded lizard. There are both carnivorous and herbivorous species. They may lay eggs or produce living young.

Lizards are well represented in the United States, especially in the South and Southwest. Among the more common are the genus *Sceloporus*, represented in the eastern states by the fence lizards, the genus *Cnemidophorus*, better known of which is the swiftly moving six-lined lizard, the horned toads, skinks, the American chameleon, and the big Gila monster and chuckwalla of the desert. See CHAMELEON CHUCKWALLA GECKO GILA MONSTER HORNED TOAD SKINK SQUAMATA [J D B]

### Llama

An animal allied to the camel and having many of its characteristics but being about one-third its size. The llama is the traditional burden carrier in the higher parts of the Andes Mountains in South America; therefore it has not been bred primarily for its fleece. Its hair fiber generally coarser and brownish in color is valued because it may be mixed with the hair of the alpaca, an animal of the same species that is raised for its fleece alone. Some wools are obtained from the undercoat of the llama.



The llama *Lama pacifica* length 4 ft (From P. M. Duane and Cassil *Natural History of California*)

When llama hair is part of a blend of fibers it gives exquisite natural colors found in fabric. Such llama fiber mixtures have a characteristic high inelastic property with little weight. They are used for high quality coat fabrics to take advantage of the quality of wrinkle resistance, fastness of color, and extreme durability. See ALPACA CAMEL'S HAIR CASHMERE MOHAIR WOOL see also ARTIOBACTYLA FIBER NATURAL [M D P]

### Load line

A line drawn on the characteristic curves of a vacuum tube used to determine the operating range and the quiescent point (the operating point for zero signal input voltage). The graphical determination is necessary because the mathematical func-





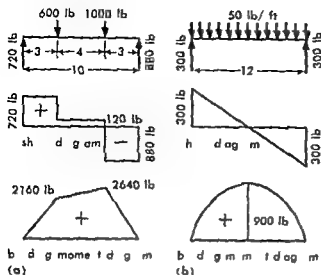


Fig 2 Typical shear and moment diagrams for (a) concentrated loads and (b) uniformly distributed load

reference origin. The magnitude and distribution of internal stresses associated with the external force system are found by the theory of flexure.

**Bending moment diagram.** A graphical representation shows the bending moment produced at all sections of a member by a specified loading. The bending moment is the sum of the moments of external forces acting to the left of the section taken about the section. The sign of the curvature is related to the sign of the bending moment (Fig 1b).

Typical bending moment and shear diagrams are shown in Fig 2 for concentrated and uniformly distributed loads on a simply supported beam. The reactions and moments are found for equilibrium (see Statics).

**Shear diagram.** A graphic representation of the transverse shearing force at all sections of a beam produced by specified loading is called a shear diagram. The shear at any section is equal to the sum of the forces on a segment to the left of the section considered (Fig 1c). Positive shears are produced by upward forces (Fig 2).

Relationships between shear and bending moment that assist in construction of diagrams are (1) maximum moment occurs where shear is zero, (2) area in the shear diagram equals change of bending moment between sections, (3) ordinate in the shear diagram equal slope of moment diagram, and (4) shear is constant between concentrated loads and has constant slope for uniformly distributed loads. Combined loading can be represented by conventional composite moment diagrams or by separate diagrams called diagrams by parts.

**Beams.** Members subjected to bending by transverse loads are classed as beams. The span is the unsupported length. Beams may have single or multiple spans and are classified according to kind of support which may permit freedom of rotation or furnish restraint (Fig 3).

The degree of restraint at supports modifies the stresses, curvature and deflection. A beam is statically

determinate when all reaction components can be evaluated by the equations of statics. Two equations are available for transverse loads and only two reaction components can be found. Fixed end and continuous beams are statically indeterminate and additional load deformation relationships are required to supplement statics.

Bending stresses are the internal tensile and compressive longitudinal stresses developed in response to curvature induced by external load. Their magnitudes depend on the bending moment and the properties of the section. The theory of flexure assumes elastic behavior. No stresses act along a longitudinal plane surface within the beam called the neutral surface. A segment subjected to constant bending moment as when bent by end couples is in pure bending and stresses vary linearly across the section which remains plane. Simultaneous shear causes warping and nonlinear stress distribution. The stress is maximum at boundary surfaces of sections where bending moment  $M$  is greatest. Maximum stress  $S$  at distance  $c$  from the neutral axis to the extreme element of a section having a moment of inertia  $I$  is  $S = Mc/I = M/Z$ , where  $Z = I/c$  is called the section modulus, a measure of the section depending upon shape and dimensions. Greatest economy results when the section provides the required section modulus with least area. The common theory of flexure applies only to elastic stress. Stresses exceeding the elastic limit involve plastic strains producing permanent deflections upon load removal.

Inelastic stresses are first produced at surface elements of sections resisting maximum moment. A distinct yield point in materials such as structural grade steel causes stresses near the surface to remain constant while interior stresses increase with increasing load. Redistribution of stress continues until the entire section behaves plastically. The fully plastic resisting moment of a standard I section is about 15% greater than the moment just producing yield point at the surface. Where small increases in deflection can be tolerated, this plastic hinge moment is used in design.

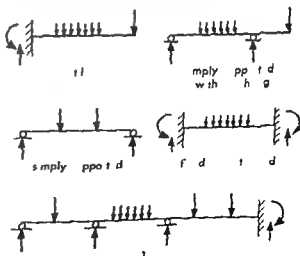


Fig 3 Types of beam



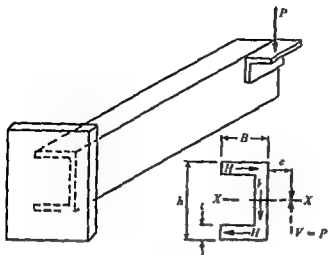


Fig 5 Shear center

all sections and the beam is said to have constant strength. Dimensions of the section can be varied by tapering the width and depth or by adding cover plates to a built-up section to vary the section modulus. Common examples of beams with variable section are tapered cantilevers, plate girder with multiple cover plate forgings and other machine elements. A leaf spring is a tapered beam in which uniform stress increases energy absorption.

**Shear center.** A point on a line parallel to the axis of a beam through which any transverse force must be applied to avoid twisting of the section is called the center of twist or shear center. A beam section twists when the resultant of the internal shearing forces is not in the same plane as the externally applied shear. The shear center can be found by locating the resultant of the internal shear forces. A channel section has one axis of symmetry and is subject to twisting. The external shear passes through a point located  $e$  from the center of the web so that  $e = Bh^2/4I$  approximately when the flange and web thickness are small, where  $B$  is flange width,  $h$  is depth of section,  $t$  is thickness and  $I$  is moment of inertia about the symmetrical axis (Fig 5).

Beams on elastic foundation are members subjected to transverse load while resting either on a continuous supporting foundation or on closely spaced supports which behave elastically. The curvature, deflection and bending moment depend upon the relative stiffness of the beam and supporting foundation. Beams of this type include railroad rails on ties, a timber resting on level ground, a long pipe supported by closely spaced hanger rods or springs and a concrete footing on a soil foundation. The unknown reactive force per unit length of beam is assumed to be proportional to the deflection, and the solution of this statically indeterminate problem requires derivation of the equation of the elastic curve whose differential equation is  $EI(d^4y/dx^4) = -ky$  where  $k$  is the spring constant per unit length of support and  $ky$  is the elastic force exerted per unit length of beam. Solution of this equation determines the distribu-

tion of reactive forces from which the shear and moments can be found. See STRENGTH OF MATERIALS. [W. J. AR]

## Loads, dynamic

A force exerted by a moving body on a resisting member is called a dynamic or energy load. Loads suddenly applied with appreciable striking velocity, as when a falling weight strikes another body, are called impact loads. Such loads are produced by moving machine parts, cars on a bridge, airplanes landing, shock falling weights and other nonstationary loading conditions where forces are applied in relatively short time intervals. Dynamic load is expressed in terms of the amount of energy transferred or by an equivalent static load which has the same stress-producing effect on the member.

Impact or load factor is the measure of the increased static load required to produce the same stress as the dynamically applied load. It is thus the ratio of the equivalent static load to the weight of the moving body. Impact affects both the magnitude of the stress and the properties of the material. Increased strain rates associated with impact increase the elastic and ultimate strength.

**Elastic behavior.** If a material or structure has sufficient elastic energy capacity as a resisting member to absorb completely the energy load through elastic action and recover completely from the deformation, it behaves elastically (see SHOCK ABSORBER). Elastic stresses associated with stored strain energy depend on the kind of deformation produced. Part of the kinetic energy is dissipated by deformation of connection, friction and inertia effect.

Dynamic stresses and deformations can be found by equating externally applied energy to the internal strain energy expressed in terms of stresses and dimensions. Dynamic force produced by weight  $W$  falling through height  $h$  onto a beam or spring is approximately

$$P_{ds} = W + W \sqrt{1 + \frac{2h}{\Delta_1}} (c)$$

where  $\Delta_1$  is elastic deflection due to gradual application and  $c$  is an inertia correcting factor. Stresses and deflection are found by expressions of the same form.

**Inelastic behavior.** An energy load exceeding the elastic energy capacity of the member produces inelastic deformation. For a known amount of energy, the dynamic load and deformation can be found approximately from the boundaries of the area under a statically determined load deformation curve which represents absorbed energy. Similarly, the inelastic stress produced by impact or the dimensions necessary to limit the stress can be found from areas in the static stress-strain curve.

Toughness is the energy absorbed per unit volume when the material is stressed to fracture and is represented by the total area under the stress-strain diagram. Ability to store strain energy is in-

caused by uniform stress and density. Capacity to dissipate energy of loads by plastic deformations is desirable in members subject to work under stress. [W.J.K.R.]

## Loads, repeated

Forces applied many times causing varying stresses as the load changes. Repeated loads exist in machine parts, springs, pistons, rods, rails, bridge members, and many other machine and structural elements. Repeated loads are considerably smaller than similarly applied static loads cause failure by progressive fracture. Designs for repeated loads depend on the maximum value of repeated stress, such as the material constant called the fatigue strength, and the magnitude of localized stress concentrations. (See STRESS CONCENTRATION)

**Cycle of stress.** The variation of stress during a typical fluctuation when the load is repeatedly applied and removed when the load fluctuates sinusoidally (see figure). A fluctuating stress is a stress cycle (as illustrated). A fluctuating stress is a stress cycle between maximum and minimum values of the amplitude. This condition is called repeated stress. The stress cycle is repeated. The reversed stress arises between loads of opposite signs and partly reversed when the opposite stresses are equal and completely reversed when both opposite stresses are equal.

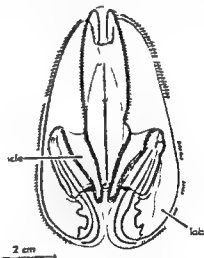
Stress variation is described either by the maximum stress, its kind (tension or compression) and the range of fluctuation, or by the mean or tensile stress together with the magnitude of the superimposed alternating or producing the cyclic variation. Repeated load is superimposed on a constant load, such as dead weight of the structure, produce fluctuation with out reversal. Engine crankshafts and parts, rails and axles are subjected to the reversed-type cyclic loading, which is usually billions of repetitions in the life of the member.

**Stress reversals.** Dimensional changes internal discontinuities, the conditions such as local

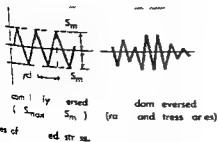
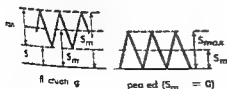
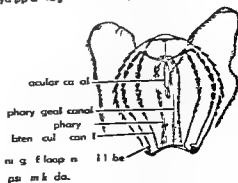
ized disturbance of the normal stress distribution, which increase stress so that a small produced, are termed stress raisers. The maximum stress is called stress concentration. High local stresses exist at bolt threads, abrupt change of shaft diameter, notches, holes, keyways, rivet welds. Internal defects such as blowholes, inclusions, seams, cracks, defects and knots in wood, etc. and variable stiffness of joints at contact points cause stress concentrations. At points of contact of ball or roller bearings, gear teeth, etc., the local load application there may be greatly increased. Maximum stress is obtained by multiplying the nominal stress computed without regard to the modifying effect of the stress raiser by stress concentration factor. The factor of undetermined experimentally depends on the type of discontinuity and the properties of the material under static load. DuPont material relieves most of the stress concentration by plastic yielding. Stress raisers contribute to failure under high stress rates and low temperatures which tend to inhibit plastic flow and are of great importance under repeated loads which produce progressive fracture, called fatigue failure. [W.J.K.R.]

## Lobata

An order of the Olenophorida in which the body is helmet-shaped. A pair of large lobe-shaped processes extend from the basal end in the pharyngeal



Lobata cydippid larva of Mnemiopsis



Types of stress cycles

plane. A pair of auricles are attached to the base of each process. The body is compressed with the tentacular axis being shorter than the pharyngeal axis. The ribs are of unequal length with the longest being the subpharyngeal pairs. The primary tentacles are degenerate and are replaced by secondary tentacles. The canal system is complex. Examples of this order include *Bolinopsis*, *Ocyropsis*, *Mnemiopsis*, *Leucothea*. See CTENOPHORA. TENACULATA [T K]

## Lobster

A name usually limited to a member of the family Homaridae, order Decapoda, class Crustacea, phylum Arthropoda. The family includes nine genera of which only one is represented in American waters by a single species, *Homarus americanus*, the American lobster.

This species is the common lobster of commerce. It is a valuable animal supporting an important fishery in the New England states. The annual catch has exceeded 100,000,000 lb but due to depletion it has been much less in recent years. For example, in 1954 the total catch was only 27,000,000 lb, 1,000,000 lb coming from the middle Atlantic states and the remainder from New England. Depletion has been caused primarily by overfishing and by catching lobsters before they could reproduce. Lobsters must now be returned to the water unless they are over 12 in long or have freed the first generation of young.

Lobsters are essentially like the fresh water crayfishes in their structure, differing mainly in size. The average American lobster is a little over a foot in length and weighs about 2 lb. The record specimen weighed over 28 lb and was 2 ft long. Lobsters are usually dark green with darker spots and yellowish beneath. The animal turns red only after it has been boiled.

Like the crayfish, the female carries her eggs under her abdomen until they hatch. A 15 in female may carry as many as 100,000 eggs at a time. Mating occurs some time before egg deposition usually in the spring with the eggs being liberated early in the summer. The young resemble their parents in form. They undergo about 25 molts before

attaining sexual maturity at 5 years of age. The female frees her first brood of young when she is 6 years old and produces a new brood every other year thereafter.

In recent years the shortage of the American lobster on the market has brought the spiny lobsters of the family Palinuridae into commercial prominence. There are two commercially important species: the California spiny lobster *Panulirus interruptus* on the Pacific Coast and the sea crawfish *P. argus* on the Atlantic Coast. The latter is a southern form found from the Carolinas southward and in the Gulf of Mexico. Together these animals produce about 3,000,000 lb of food annually, about two thirds of which comes from the eastern species. Both species are 8 in or more in length and are identified by the strong spines on the carapace. See CRAYFISH, DECAPODA (CRUSTACEA). [J D B]

## Location fit

Mechanical sizes of mating parts such that when assembled they are accurately positioned in relation to each other. Locational fits are intended only to determine the orientation of the parts. For normally stationary parts that require ease of assembly or disassembly for parts that fit snugly and for parts that move yet fit closely as in pigots, slight clearance is provided between parts. Where accuracy of location is important, transition fits are used. In these fits the holes and shafts are normally nearly the same diameter. For greater accuracy of location the shafts are made slightly larger than the holes; such fits are termed location interference fits. See ALLOWANCE. [P H B]

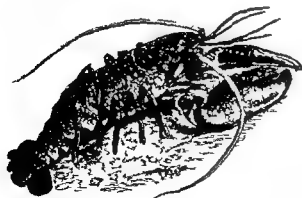
## Locomotive

A vehicle supported on wheels, capable of self-propulsion by converting heat or electric energy into mechanical power for the purpose of moving railway cars over rails. It may be powered by steam, compressed air, electricity, oil, or gas from volatile oils.

A locomotive consists of a power plant for generating energy, a storage compartment for fuel, a transmission system for converting energy into mechanical power, a system of controls for governing the power developed, a braking system for reducing the speed of the train, and auxiliaries for lighting, heating systems for passenger trains, warning systems and devices for increasing unit efficiency. The three general classes are passenger, freight, and switcher.

Passenger locomotives are designed for high speed, fast acceleration, and light loads. The steam locomotive has large diameter driving wheels (69-84 in); electric motor-driven units have low gear ratios.

For freight service, locomotives are designed with slower speed and acceleration than passenger locomotives to pull heavy loads. Steam locomotives use smaller diameter driving wheels (63-70 in); electric motor-driven units have higher reduction gear ratios.



Lobster *Homarus americanus*, its length 5 to 2 ft. (From P. M. Duncan, ed., Cassell's Natural History Cassell)

Fig 1 Mod m team posse g r l m t d el ps  
 active float f 80 000 lb pl d l gth f g e  
 d tender 109 ft i tal w ght 872 600 lb (N  
 S&W St R Jw y)

Flexibility: of first importance n a l o m i e  
 which can e l i m u t m e a s l y i n e i t h e r  
 direction, be able to negotiate h r p u r v e s h a e  
 p o o d l e a r a n e f r m o m e n t i y a r d s a n d i n  
 l i n e a t a d p r i d e g o o d i b l i t y f o r t h e  
 m o u n t e d

Steam locomotive This type c n t f two  
 main parts co n e c t e d b y a a r t u l e d j o i n t. The  
 tender a t t a c h m e n t o i d l e r w h e e l t h e  
 a h f e b o x, a d b o l r l o c a t e d t h e m i n f a m e  
 r u n t e d t h e d n g w h e e l s (F i g 1) I n a n  
 a r t i c u l a t e d t y p e l o c o m o t i v e, t h e m i n f a m e r i s  
 e v e r s e p a r e d f r o m t h e t e n d e r.

Steam is generated a fire t b e i l r u s i n g  
 c o a l i l f o r f e l. H t f o m t h e f i r e b o x p s e s  
 t h r o u g h b o i l e r s (F i g 2) h a t g w a t e r t o p r o  
 d u c e s t e a m, h b p s e s t h r o u g h c o n t r o l l e d  
 v a l v e s t h e m a i n c y l i n d e r w h e r e i t a c t p n t h e  
 d r o w i n g p i s t o n. E a c h p i s t o n i s c o n e c t e d t h r o u g h  
 t h e c r o s s h e a d d r i n g r o d t o t h e d r i n g  
 b e l t, b h e c o n n e c t e d t o t h e b y s d e  
 r o d s. T h e o d n e c t i o n i n t h e w h e e l c e n t e r  
 f o r m i n g l e s t h a t t h e l e v e l m e n t f i t t h e  
 p i s t o n s e e s t h e h e l t o r o t a t e a d m o t h e  
 l o c o m o t i v e.

Loc m i p e e d t r o l l e d b y a t h o t t l e  
 h e a t i n t h e a m t f t e a m e t e i n g t h e  
 t e n d e r t e m p e r a t u r e, a n d t h e t o f f l e w h i c h  
 d e r m i n e s t h e t u r n i n g. T h e s e l s a s t e n  
 t e d t h e t h e d e b y t u r n i n g t h e  
 a n g l e a n d l e g t h t h e m m t o f t h e p i s t o n  
 The locomotive is e v e r e d b y m h a n m t h a t



Fig 2 F i g h o t m b y p d t f m t b f  
 locomotive boiler th gh m k h t d p r k

change the flow f team to the pp site end f  
 the p i t n y l i n d e r

Coal i fed i n t o t h e f i r e f i l y f a n d o r a t m a t i c  
 s t o k e r I n o i l f i r e d l o c m o t i v e o i l i f r e d i n  
 t h o u g h n z z l e s. W a t e r i s f r e d i n t o t h e b o i l e r b y  
 a n i n j e c t o r t h r o u g h a c h e c k v a l v e t h a t p r e v e n t s t h e  
 s t e a m f r o m b a c k i n g. The e f f i c i e n c y o f t h e t e a m  
 e n g i n e i s i n c r e a s e d b y s t e a m h e a t i n g t h e w a t e r b e f o r e  
 i t e n t e r s t h e l e v e l e r a d u p e r h e a t i n g t h e t e a m b e f o r e i t  
 e n t e r s t h e c y l i n d e r s.

Electric locomotive This l o c m o t i v e c o n v e r t  
 e l e c t r i c e n e r g y i n t o m e c h a n i c a l p o w e r t o m o v e  
 t h e t r a i n t h r o u g h t h e e l e c t r i c m t s. I t h a s t h e a d  
 v a n t a g e o f p e r a t i n g f r o m a n e n e r g y s o u r c e t h a t i s  
 l i m i t e d o n l y b y t h e r a t i n g o f t h e e l e c t r i c t r a n s m i s s i o n  
 s y s t e m. C o n t r o l i s p e r f o r m e d b y t h i r d r a i l b o s o r  
 e r e c t a d p a t t e r n g r a p h a n d i t e i t h e r u s e d  
 d i r e c t l y b y t h e m t s o r i s c o n t r o l l e d b y t r a n s f o r m e r  
 m t r l i n e a t o r s o r c i r c u i t e r s t o a f f o r m u s a b l e b y t h e m (F i g 3)

The power is determined by the number a d  
 c h a r a c t e r i s t i c o f t h e e l e c t r i c m t s. I t a l l y t h e  
 m t r a m t u r w a s m o u n t e d o n t h e a x l e n o w t h e  
 m t r h u g i n t h e t r a c k a n d g a r e d t h e a x l e  
 b y a p i n o g e a n d t h e a r m a t u r e h a f t a n d b u l l  
 g e a r o n t h e a x l e. S t a r t i n g a n d c e l e r a t i n g o n r e q u i r e  
 h i g h r e v o l u t i o n s p e e d r e q u i r e h i g h l a g e.

Locomotive speed i s c o n t r o l l e d t h r o u g h m t r  
 t r a n s m i s s i o n a d b y m u l t i p l e t e p r a t o r s. A t h e  
 p e e d i n e a c h s t e p c u r r e n t d r o p s r e q u i r e h i g h e r  
 v o l t a g e w h i c h i s a c h i e v e d b y c u t t i n g o f f t r e i t n e  
 e n d b y t r a n s m i s s i o n. T r a n s m i s s i o n c o m p l i c a t e d b y  
 o p e n i n g a n d c l o s i n g p o w e r t a c t s t o f r i m  
 e a s y e s p a r a l l e l f u l l p a r a l l e l m o t o r c i r c u i t  
 V a r i a t i o n i n p e e d i s l i m i t e d b y m o t o r c o  
 n s t r u c t i o n a d d e a r a t. T h e l i m i t e d s p e e d  
 b y r e v e r s i n g t h e f l o w o f c u r r e n t t h r o u g h t h e m t r  
 f i e l d s. A n a d v a n t a g e o f e l e c t r i c p o w e r e d l o c o m o t i v e  
 i s t h a t t w o o r m o r e u n i t s a n b e o p e r a t e d i n  
 m u l t i p l e b y m e a n s o f t a i l i n g t h e i r c o n t r o l  
 r a t i o t h u s m u l t i p l y i n g t h e r p w r f o r h e a v y  
 t a s k a n d t e p g r a d e.

E l e c t r i c m o t o r s a l s o l e n d e r t e l f t d y n a m i c  
 r e g u l a t i o n c h a k e t h e r i t a r e c h g e d t o  
 m a k e g e n e r a t o r s f i t t h e m o t o r w h i c h p u m p u r r e n t  
 b a c k i n t h e l i n e o d s p a t h i r l o a d i n f o r c e d  
 i n o l e d r e m s.

Diesel locomotive A s a b l e p e e d d e l i n  
 g i n w h i c h b u s f u l l o p w r s t h i s l o c m o t i v e  
 T h e g e n e r a t o r u s u a l l y u s e s f o u r c y c l e  
 V t y p e f u c y l e h e t w o c y c l e V t y p e a n d  
 p p e d p t n t y p e. T h e y r a n g e n e f r m 150-  
 2400 h p h i g h e r h o r p o w e r u n i t s r e q u i p p e d  
 w i t h m e c h a n i c a l s p e a r g e. S p e e d o f t h e m  
 g e n e r a t o r i s l i m i t e d b y t h e m e c h a n i c a l a s s u  
 t h a t t y f f i e l e c t d a t t h e c y l i n d e r t h a t  
 t h e m e c h a n i c a l l i n k d t h e g e n e r a t o r. S e  
 l t y p e f i t m e c h a n i c a l u s e g a  
 h y d r u l i c a n d l i t r.

G e n e r a t o r s H t h d l s u n t e d  
 t h d g w h e e l t h o u g h t a m i s s o f  
 h a g e b l e a t s t h t p d e f r e g  
 d l i n g g t h e p e e d f t h u n t.

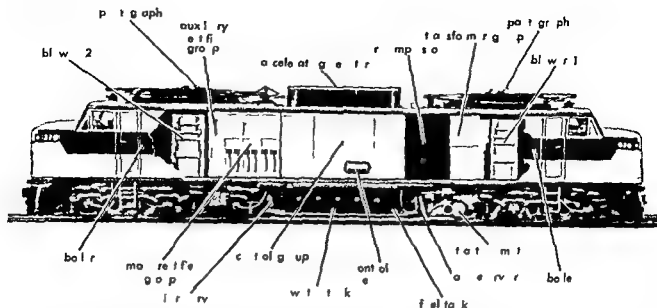


Fig 3 Rectifier type electric locomotive for passenger and freight service has maximum speed of 90 mph

68 ft long weighs 348 000 lb and develops 4000 hp (General Electric Co)

**Hydraulic transmission** Here the diesel engine is connected by universal drive shafts to the hydraulic transmission system mounted on the truck between the two driving wheels. One type is an automatic gear shift mechanism with a disengaging torque converter; it provides four speeds forward and reverse.

**Diesel electric locomotive** By far the most popular locomotive in the United States is the diesel electric type (Fig 4). Its power is the variable speed diesel engine; its transmission the flexible electrical system of generator and motors.

The generator driven directly from the diesel engine provides electric power for the motors located on the trucks and geared to the driving axles. The generator is separately excited by an auxiliary generator driven by the diesel through gear trains or V belt. This or other auxiliary generators similarly driven provide power for auxiliaries and battery charging. The diesel engine is started by using the generator as a motor with the battery supply in the power.

The air compressor that provides air for the braking system and air operated auxiliaries is directly connected to the diesel. Fans for the cooling system and traction motor blowers are geared or

V belt driven from the diesel. In some models the fans are driven by ac motors powered by an ac alternator built on the end of the main generator.

In starting power is increased by increasing engine speed. After full engine speed has been obtained motor transition and field hunting are used to obtain higher locomotive speeds.

The speed of the diesel engine is controlled by its governor. To balance the power demand of the electric generator and power output of the diesel a load regulator is connected to the governor.

Heating for passenger service is supplied by a steam generator.

The development of the diesel has brought a new type locomotive into prominence: the road switcher. Constructed similarly to the switcher, it has sufficient power for either light passenger or local freight service and being adaptable to multiple unit operation, it is a versatile piece of equipment.

**Turbine locomotive** This type locomotive is powered by a steam or gas turbine (see GAS TURBINE STEAM TURBINE). The turbine power is transmitted to the driving wheels through an electric transmission system.

A modern steam turbine coal-fired locomotive is rated for 4500 hp. It has a starting tractive effort

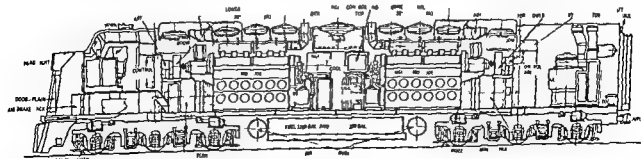


Fig 4 Diesel-electric locomotive rated for 2400 hp 70 ft long and weighs 324 800 lb loaded (General Motors)







Black locust *Robinia pseudoacacia* (A. H. Graes illustrated Guide to Trees and Shrubs, Harper, 1956)

spreading fibrous root system which support nitrogen fixing nodules the black locust is well adapted to erosion control and soil reclamation (see SOIL CONSERVATION). Many varieties are planted as shade or ornamental trees.

The honey locust which reaches a height of 135 ft is native in the Appalachian and the Mississippi Valley regions but is also widely naturalized in the eastern United States and southern Canada. The flowers are inconspicuous but the large brown fruit pods (12-18 in. long) are striking. The tree may be easily recognized at any season of the year by the branched thorns growing on the trunk or branches. The leaves are either pinnate or bipinnate. The reddish wood is hard, strong and coarse grained and takes a high polish. Because it is durable in contact with soil it is used for fence posts and railroad ties. It is also used for construction furniture and interior finish. Although it belongs to the legume family the roots do not possess nitrogen fixing bacteria. The tree is often used for hedges as an ornamental and for shade. See FOREST AND FORESTRY TREE [A.H.G.]

## Loess

An essentially unconsolidated unstratified calcareous silt. Most commonly it is homogenous permeable buff to gray in color and contains calcareous concretions and fossils. In natural and artificial excavations the loess maintains notably stable vertical faces.

**Texture and composition.** Mechanical analyses of loess show that fine sand (grains  $>0.074$  mm) comprises 0-10%, silt (0.074-0.005 mm) comprises 50-85% and clay (grains  $<0.005$  mm) comprises 15-45%. Variations in published analyses may result in part from the different grade size limits used by the investigators. Although dominantly silt and often referred to as well sorted loess is actually only moderately well sorted. The

silt (and sand) grains are usually angular in sub-angular. Clay occurs as silt size aggregate as coatings on silt grains and as interstitial filling.

The silt and sand fraction of the loess has the following mineral composition: quartz, 50-10%; feldspars 15-30%; carbonates (mainly calcite) 0-11% and heavy minerals 5-15%. X-ray identification of the minerals in the  $<0.005$  mm fraction show abundant quartz plus varying proportions of montmorillonoids, illites and chlorites. In texture and mineral composition loess is comparable to the average mudstone or shale. It is susceptible to authigenic changes such as the transformation of clay mineral formation of chlorites and the movement of soluble materials especially carbonates. See AUTHIGENIC MINERALS, CLAY MINERALS, SEDIMENTARY ROCKS.



Loess deposits of the world (From A. H. Lobeck, Geomorphology, McGraw-Hill, 1939)

**Occurrence and origin.** Loess is typically developed in areas peripheral to those covered by the last ice sheets in America and Europe. Greatest thicknesses (more than 150 ft) occur in the uplands bordering the valleys of the major streams. There is a general but irregular thinning of the loess in one or more directions away from each valley. Other notable areas are northern China and Argentina. Most of the loess seems to have been deposited during the latest (Wisconsin) glacial stage. Little or no loess is found associated with earlier glacial deposits or covering the area actually occupied by the latest ice sheet. No loess deposits older than the Pleistocene are known.

Many theories have been proposed to explain the deposition of loess. The most widely accepted theory is that the materials were transported and deposited by wind. Source areas were nearby flood plains and till plains. Controversy continues however for some investigators present evidence and arguments in favor of the alluvial origin of some loess. Others hold that primary deposits by wind or water have been greatly modified by colluviation to produce loess. See SEDIMENTATION (GEOLOGY).

[C.J.R.]  
**Bibliography.** A. H. Lobeck, *Geomorphology* 1939; F. J. Pettijohn, *Sedimentary Rocks* 2d ed. 1957.

## Logarithm

An exponent of a suitably chosen positive number (base) larger than unity. Logarithms are of value in mathematical computation and in the equations

form has used in the pressing natural phenom

The use of natural logarithms (base  $e = 2.718$ ) is usually attributed to John Napier by his book of a table of logarithms in Edinburgh 1614 and the title *Monstrum Logarithmorum* (see *De cryptographia*) even though the function is tabulated by Peter a mere related to a different natural logarithms.

The introduction of common logarithms (base 10) is generally attributed to Henry Briggs. Napier's share is acknowledged here by Briggs himself in his *Arithmetica Logarithmica* 1624.

Theory If  $b = a$  then  $b = a$  is called the logarithm of  $a$  to the base  $b$  and is written  $\log_b a$ . From this definition it follows that the logarithm of  $a$  to the base  $b$  is equal to the logarithm of  $a$  to the base  $b$  multiplied by the logarithm of  $b$  to the base  $a$ . The logarithm of unity is equal to 0. Since  $b = 1$  irrespective of the value of  $b$  it follows that the logarithm of unity is equal to 0. From the properties of exponential functions expressed by the relation

$$b^x \cdot b^y = b^{x+y} \quad b^x / b^y = b^{x-y} \\ (b^x)^y = b^{xy} \quad \sqrt[y]{b^x} = b^{x/y}$$

it follows immediately that (1) the logarithm of a product of two factors is equal to the sum of the logarithms of the factors (2) the logarithm of the ratio of two numbers is equal to the difference between the logarithms of the numerator and the denominator (3) the logarithm of the  $m$ th power of a number is equal to  $m$  times the logarithm of the number and (4) the logarithm of the  $m$ th root of a number is equal to  $1/m$  times the logarithm of the number. These properties are especially useful for the great simplification in the task of carrying out numerical calculations involving multiplication, division, raising to powers, and taking roots of certain orders of given numbers. It is also possible to construct a table of logarithms to a certain base from which by using the computer need only multiply the logarithms of prime numbers because the logarithm of a number which is not prime may be obtained from the logarithms of its prime factors by simple addition and multiplication. See Example 1.

Although the logarithm of a number  $b$  to the base  $b$  is always 1, it has been chosen as the base of a system of logarithms, usually two numbers have been chosen, the natural logarithms of  $e$  and  $10$  and the logarithm of  $e$  is the natural logarithm.

$$1 + \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \dots$$

The series of logarithms to the base 10 is usually referred to as common logarithms. The series of

logarithms to the base  $e$  is called natural logarithms.

Common logarithms have certain obvious advantages not shared by natural logarithms. All numbers between 1 and 10 have logarithms between 0 and 1, all numbers between 10 and 100 have logarithms between 1 and 2, and so on. Thus the integral part of the common logarithm of a number is greater than unity by one unit less than the number of digits before the decimal point. This integral part is called the characteristic of the decimal part, called the mantissa. Similarly because the common logarithms of 0.1, 0.01, and 0.001 are  $-1$ ,  $-2$ , and  $-3$  it follows that the logarithm of a number smaller than unity having  $p$  zeros after the decimal point may be expressed as the sum of a negative characteristic equal to  $-(p+1)$  and a positive mantissa.

Natural logarithms Because the number  $e = 2.718$  is the base of the system of natural logarithms is irrational, that is, it cannot be expressed as the ratio of two integers (and therefore when expressed as a decimal number it is an infinite number of decimals with no repeating groups of digits). It might seem odd therefore that it has been chosen as the base of a system of logarithms. The primary motivation for this choice lies in the fact that the solutions of numerous problems in applied mathematics are most naturally expressed in terms of powers of  $e$ . Thus for instance the solutions of the problems of equilibrium of a flexible cable, the transient flow of electric current in a circuit, and the disintegration of radioactive elements are expressed in terms of  $e^x$  where  $x$  is either positive or negative and depends on the physical parameter of the problem in question. Thus, the tabulation of the function  $e^x$  for both positive and negative values of  $x$  was an indispensable aid.

Obtaining the solutions of many physical problems because of the logarithmic function; the introduction of the exponential function into a table of natural logarithms can be constructed with relative ease from a table of  $e^x$  by the process of interpolation. Another motivation for constructing tables of natural logarithms is the fact that natural logarithms are the integrals of the function  $1/x$  of polynomials and of functions which may be approximated by polynomials. Indeed it is a well-known fact that if the zeros of a polynomial  $P_n(x)$  are known so that  $P_n(x) = a_0(x-x_1)(x-x_2)\dots(x-x_n)$  and if  $Q(x)$  is a polynomial of degree smaller than  $n$  then the quotient  $Q(x)/P(x)$  may be written as the sum of

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{A_k}{x-x_k}$$

where the  $A_k$  may be readily determined. A corollary

$$\int \frac{Q(x)}{P(x)} dx = \sum_{k=1}^n A_k \int \frac{dx}{x-x_k} \\ = \sum_{k=1}^n A_k \log(x-x_k)$$

Table of logarithms

Number	Nat ral log rithm	Com log rithm
0.01	86-10	~ (8-10)
1.0	0	0
e = 718	1	0.345
10	7.303	1
1000	6.909	3

**Relation between logarithm bases** Let  $I_1$  be the known natural logarithm of a number  $N$ . What is the common logarithm of  $N$ ? Clearly  $N = e^I$  and therefore  $\log_{10} N = I_1 \log_{10} e$ . Since  $\log_{10} e = 0.43429$  (to five decimals) it can be concluded that natural logarithms are converted into common logarithms by multiplying the natural logarithm by the factor 0.43429 which is called the modulus. Similarly the common logarithm is converted into a natural logarithm by division by the modulus 0.43429 or multiplication by 2.303.

**Logarithms of complex numbers.** Since  $b^i$  is positive when  $b$  is positive, negative numbers have no real logarithms. Nevertheless Euler's famous formula  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$  where  $i = \sqrt{-1}$  makes it possible to define not only the logarithm of a negative number but also the logarithm of a complex number. Indeed any complex number  $a + ib$  may be written in the form  $\rho e^{i\theta}$  where  $\rho = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  and  $\theta = \arctan (b/a)$ . It follows that the logarithm of a complex number  $a + ib$  is a complex number whose real part is the logarithm of its modulus  $\rho$  and whose imaginary part is its phase (or argument)  $\theta$ . Because  $e = e^{i0}$  it follows that a complex number has an infinite number of logarithms given by the relation

$$\log(a + ib) = \log \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} + i(\theta + 2n\pi)$$

where  $n$  is a positive or negative integer.

As previously mentioned the evaluation of natural logarithms may be based on inverse interpolation in a table of  $e$ . For small values of  $x$  positive or negative one may use the expansion

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^6}{6} + \frac{x^7}{7} - \frac{x^8}{8} + \frac{x^9}{9} - \frac{x^{10}}{10} + \dots$$

This expansion may be derived from Taylor's series

$$f(x+a) = f(a) + \frac{x}{1} f'(a) + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} f''(a) + \frac{x^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} f'''(a) + \dots$$

by writing  $f(x) = \log x$ . After a sufficiently accurate table of  $\log(1 \pm x)$  for  $x = k/10$ ,  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 9$  and  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$  where  $N$  is sufficiently large (perhaps 15) has been computed this table may be used to compute the logarithm of any number. From the above expansion for  $\log(1+x)$  it is easy to derive the expansion

$$\log p = \frac{1}{2}(\log(p-1) + \log(p+1)) + S(p)$$

where

$$S(p) = \frac{1}{2p^2-1} + \frac{1}{3(2p^2-1)^3} + \frac{1}{(2a+1)(2p^2-1)^5} + \dots$$

which has the virtue that  $S(p)$  converges quite rapidly. Thus for  $p > 10,000$  the error resulting from neglecting all but the first term in  $S(p)$  is considerably less than  $10^{-9}$ . See *NUMBER THEORY* AND *NUMERICAL ANALYSIS* [A. N. L.]

## Logging (forestry)

The first step in lumber manufacture is harvesting trees from forests in the form of logs and delivering the logs to a sawmill. See *LUMBER MANUFACTURE*.

**Equipment.** Felling trees selected for cutting is accomplished with hand saws or by power saws. The chain type gasoline powered saw with cutting teeth in a chain moving rapidly around the blade is the most widely used (Fig. 1). Trunks of felled trees are severed at log length intervals to the point of minimum merchantable size or quality in the top. Most log lengths are 12, 14, and 16 ft corresponding to the standard lengths of lumber used in general construction although other lengths are cut for special needs.

Logs are skidded short distances over unimproved terrain to an assembly yard or a loading point on a logging railroad, a truck hauling road, a winter sled road, or a stream in which the logs can be floated or loaded on barges. This requires considerable power as do all subsequent steps in logging. For example a longleaf pine log 16 ft long and 18 in in diameter weighs 1500 lb. Logs are skidded by mobile power units such as a horse or a



Fig. 1 A logger felling a tree with a chain power saw. (Photograph by Homer L. C. P.)

tracto r by t t ary d e l pow r u t with drums d bles. The m hile u t goes to th l gs a d pull them to the ro d ide. With a st t u nary u n t, l m are fa t e d to the nd of a c ble and a u n d the drum th l g a m pulled t n A nd ancty of types nd ze of kudd g equ pment b been pe fected t meet ar at u f timbe ze, t r r t and de ty f the t n d t be ut.

Methods. Att chme ts ed t fa t e l gs to k d d g dev es re to gs umal t ee to g or h k rs resembl m l p oo es pl ed a m d the d s f l Whe the gr nd s too swampy to pport anm ls t t rs or too teep c ble k d d g u e d The high fi ed c t f cable skidding install t s qu s m m d ly log James 150 000 ft 10-ye r peratng life nd ts d gang 10 000 ft/ e. The mple t f m f bl k d d g c t f d agg g log n the p d t th m h n e with or without a cable k l A m h m wid ly ed method is th high l d with r h s l With t the p l h g c ble s led from th p l l g d m th gh a p lley block fast ed 30-150 ft up t ee r p r and th n t to th k d d g a. A l ghter c ble gged to p l l the k d d g able rap d ly u t after a load ha bee k d d d Whe k d d g has been mpleted m s h a r a, the r haul block re el ted and th k d d g l m ed t the d j ent seg ment. I l l bl k d d g m lar p t e n is f l lo ed, that th t f m g a r and the rel an d che t with l g has bee n c e d t h d bl st et hed betw a h d par t the po t d suc e e tail pa at th f r dge f the k d d g l o used wh th k d d g d t ce d th t at wh h the high le d m thod ffe t The e e l o c h e d method b t all th k d d l n e x t d up the h d par thr gh a t l l y block th t ride the an c ble t et hed bet ee the p and then t th gr d h l g s be fa t e d t t The k d d g l n p tted al g the sk d d g t r l by the k d d man a ted by g n a l m e A l d f l g s p r l y r wh l y ed bo the g nd d th p l l d by th t l l y t th h d p r C d k d d m a be used ffects ely f r d e ta es 1300-400 ft Th h gh lead meth d s ffects t 400-800 ft, d p d g on the h ght f th h gh l d block O, he d bl k d d g h w eter b u d p t 14 m le or f r the Wh t r r p r mts m bl p w e k d d g t l l y f ed b u f ts t l t y d be e t p r m t l g d t r e d j n g t p bl f g i g t mer h t ble ze wh a bl k d d i n q t e d e t r t l l t trees th k d d g A m l l o g g n g h d e p p e a r d f m l l b t the m l l e t m t n s T t th t w h m p l y d g l g n th g r d T t t g h m f w d e m f u s e e d t l y f r k d d g t all p m f th t r y They d p t bl t l g t m l l g s, t p m d d y t d t w ed gr d Th h p p r t n l i d

pulley th ough which the cable fr m the tra t r winch is extended to the l gs. Wlen they are fastened to the cable they are pulled up under the arch a d th n dragged with the r front ends f th gr nd t red ce f r c t n l c awler t r l c n d e r a needed f r l a y l ad and teep r t t d d g r und Wheel d a g r i c l l r a l type tra t r r e u e d in the E t and So th on firm ground f m mall l m Trac t r k d d i n g d t a n c n e b t p r a t t l c n d e r a t t o s u u l l y limit k d d i g t 12 mil For l ger k d d i n g a m g e t t u g l g s o t of wide r r r bot t m s l g w a g n with wid wheel t ad or with rawl r tread a e p l l e d by tract r

Loading A f r log h e bee k d d e d t th t an port t n y tem th y re l a d e n h c l e r put n w a t r r t r a n port t the m l l Lo d i n g methods r a g e f o m pulling the ro d l m up sk d n t chucles with a m l r l ght t r c t r s t h ghly p e c i l i z e d r a f r o d r t r c k l a d e r E c e p t f o r roll g log ve k d s to w a g m r t r k m p h g them int st am l g l d i g d e c e r e d e s i g n e d t l i f t log and dep it them n a c o e y a e Th r q u e s a e r h a d pulley block a cable, d p o w e unit w i l d u m or a draw l a r p l l of t a m r t r a t r Loading abl ar at ta hed to e hang g f m or g i n p l a t g u y l n e o are placed at the n d s f m able boom The more e s a t i l e l a d e r s are self p r l l e d w h t f l l s w g i g booms which p e m t l d n g truck r c r s from any port (Fg 2) Stat s a r y types m t load fr m log once t r t p t T l at t h m t at the end f a l o d n g b l e f t e n i n g t o l g s may b t g s a b l e loops The m t r e n t d e v l p m n t is boom w h a c o m p e e d a i r t n g g r a b p e t e d by the l d e r th t e l m i n a t e s the hazard s j b s of the t g h o l k r d t o j l o d e r

Special transportation systems Larg f r e t e a r e q r e p e c i l t r a n p o r t a t i o n s y t e m f r h a u l g i g m d e q t e o f m e t u p p l y m i l l



Fg 2 A f f p l l d h v y d t y l g l o d l d g p d f l g l d h f t k h t p t d (P h t g p h by W h g t i W k S n l W h g t )

Table of logarithms

N mbe	Nat al log rithm	Common log thm
0 01	586 - 10	- (8 - 10)
1 0	0	0
= 718	1	0 4343
10	303	1
1000	6 909	3

**Relation between logarithm bases** Let  $I_1$  be the known natural logarithm of a number  $N$ . What is the common logarithm of  $N$ ? Clearly  $N = e^{I_1}$  and therefore  $\log_{10} N = I_1 \log_{10} e$ . Since  $\log_{10} e = 0.43429$  (to five decimals) it can be concluded that natural logarithms are converted into common logarithms by multiplying the natural logarithm by the factor 0.43429 which is called the modulus. Similarly the common logarithm is converted into a natural logarithm by division by the modulus 0.43429 or multiplication by 2.303.

**Logarithms of complex numbers** Since  $b^i$  is positive when  $b$  is positive, negative numbers have no real logarithms. Nevertheless Euler's famous formula  $e^{i\theta} = \cos \theta + i \sin \theta$  where  $i = \sqrt{-1}$  makes it possible to define not only the logarithm of a negative number but also the logarithm of a complex number. Indeed any complex number  $a + ib$  may be written in the form  $\rho e^{i\theta}$  where  $\rho = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  and  $\theta = \arctan(b/a)$ . It follows that the logarithm of a complex number  $a + ib$  is a complex number whose real part is the logarithm of its modulus  $\rho$  and whose imaginary part is its phase (or argument)  $\theta$ . Because  $e = e^{i2\pi}$  it follows that a complex number has an infinite number of logarithms given by the relation

$$\log(a + ib) = \log \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} + i(\theta + 2n\pi)$$

where  $n$  is a positive or negative integer.

As previously mentioned the evaluation of natural logarithms may be based on inverse interpolation in a table of  $e$ . For small values of  $x$  positive or negative one may use the expansion

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots + (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n} + \dots$$

This expansion may be derived from Taylor's series

$$f(x+a) = f(a) + \frac{x}{1} f'(a) + \frac{x^2}{1 \cdot 2} f''(a) + \dots + \frac{x^n}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \dots \cdot n} f^{(n)}(a) + \dots$$

by writing  $f(x) = \log x$ . After a sufficiently accurate table of  $\log(1 \pm x)$  for  $x = k/10$ ,  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 9$  and  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$  where  $N$  is sufficiently large (perhaps 15) has been computed, this table may be used to compute the logarithm of any number. From the above expansion for  $\log(1+x)$  it is easy to derive the expansion

$$\log p = \frac{1}{2} [\log(p-1) + \log(p+1)] + S(p)$$

where

$$S(p) = \frac{1}{2p^2 - 1} + \frac{1}{3(2p^2 - 1)^3} + \frac{1}{(2n+1)(2p^2 - 1)^{2n+1}} + \dots$$

which has the virtue that  $S(p)$  converges quite rapidly. Thus for  $p > 10,000$  the error resulting from neglecting all but the first term in  $S(p)$  is considerably less than  $10^{-6}$ . See *NUMBER THEORY NUMERICAL ANALYSIS* [A 9 L]

## Logging (forestry)

The first step in lumber manufacture is harvesting trees from forests in the form of logs and delivering the logs to a sawmill. See *LUMBER MANUFACTURE*.

**Equipment** Felling trees selected for cutting is accomplished with hand saws or by power saws. The chain type gasoline powered saw with cutting teeth in a chain moving rapidly around the blade is the most widely used (Fig. 1). Trunks of felled trees are severed at log length intervals to the point of minimum merchantable size or quality in the top. Most log lengths are 12, 14, and 16 ft corresponding to the standard lengths of lumber used in general construction although other lengths are cut for special needs.

Logs are skidded short distances over unimproved terrain to an assembly yard or a loading point on a logging railroad, a truck hauling road, a winter sled road, or a stream in which the logs can be floated or loaded on barges. This requires considerable power as do all subsequent steps in logging. For example, a longleaf pine log 16 ft long and 18 in. in diameter weighs 1500 lb. Logs are skidded by mobile power units such as a horse or a



Fig. 1. A logger felling a log tree with a chain saw. (Photograph by H. M. L. Co. p.)



with daily capacities ranging from 50 000 to several hundred thousand feet per day. Standard gage logging railroads with such volumes are practicable. They consist of main lines with spurs that ultimately cover all the property. Spur spacing depends on the topography and the skidding method but it usually averages about  $\frac{1}{2}$  mile. Diesel or steam locomotives move empty log cars to the loading area and assemble trains of loaded cars for hauling to the mill. Spur tracks are removed after the logs have been loaded out and relaid on new spur locations.

At present however most log hauling is by motor trucks ranging from 2-100 tons of gross vehicle weight. The larger types are used only on private roads as they far exceed permissible weights for public highways. Logs may be transferred from one transport method to another such as from a large truck to a small one for public highway haul or from truck to rail or to water for floating or barging.

Where available water transportation is desirable because less power is required to move floating logs. When northern freshets in the spring flow from the logging area to rivers that in turn flow to mills stream driving is an economical and effective means of log transport. Logs are floated unconfined but are kept from jamming in narrows or stranding on shores by a crew that follows the drive downstream. Water from melting snows is held upstream by small dams and released when the drive starts to flush the logs downstream. Stream driving can be used only in nonnavigable waters. In quiet waters logs can be floated confined within a boom of floating logs fastened end to end that serves as a floating fence. In navigable rivers and inland waterways logs are transported fastened together in rafts which are pushed or towed by tugs. Barges also can be loaded with logs and then moved by tugs or river craft from loading points to destination. The logging operation is completed when the logs are delivered to the mill or a shipping point.

**Prelogging.** In western forests of large trees prelogging is sometimes done in which the smaller trees are cut and removed with light tractors or even teams before the large trees are logged by cable systems or by heavy tractors. This reduces waste caused by breakage of the smaller tree. Integrated logging means the harvesting of several kinds of products from the same stand at about the same time. They are removed either prior to subsequent logging or at the time of logging and may include poles, pulpwood, veneer, bolts, cross ties or other products. [A E W]

**Bibliography.** See **FOREST AND FORESTRY**

## Logic

The subject that investigates, formulates and establishes principles of valid reasoning.

The first attempt to investigate systematically acceptable modes of reasoning was made by Aristotle in whose *Organon* reasoning was recognized

as the subject of a special science. In that work he formulated three basic laws of thought: (1) the law of contradiction (no proposition is both true and false), (2) the law of excluded middle (each proposition is either true or false), and (3) the law of identity (each proposition implies itself). Advanced as his views of logic were, it seems doubtful that the idea of axiomatizing it ever occurred to him despite the success of his contemporary Euclid in organizing geometry. That a part of logic which enunciates or establishes valid reasoning (rather than merely investigating it) began with the publication in 1854 of George Boole's *An Investigation of the Laws of Thought*. The partly abstract treatment of logic presented in this work initiated the completely abstract developments that were to follow. In it the laws of thought are regarded as mere conventions which, like the postulates of Euclidean geometry, might be modified or even rejected to create new logics. The only requirement that a new logic must satisfy is the one demanded of every deductive system—consistency. Just as different geometries are useful for different purposes, a logic that is appropriate in one environment might not be so in another. There are a growing number of competent individuals, for example, who consider that any logic containing Aristotle's law of excluded middle is not suitable for mathematics.

This article does not attempt to discuss all of the topics that are traditionally grouped under the term logic. Because it is assumed that the reader's principal interest in the subject is to acquaint himself with some of the principles for testing inferences to acquire a knowledge of the use of formal procedures in clarifying arguments and to learn how important parts of logic have in recent years been developed axiomatically, the classical theory of the syllogism will be examined and the deductive theory of truth functions (the calculus of propositions) will be presented in some detail. For the most part the discussion will be limited to what is called symbolic or mathematical logic for a special set of symbols is employed to exhibit in the clearest way the (at times) complicated logical relations involved. The advantages of a thoroughgoing use of a good symbolization are enormous. It is by such means that modern logic is able to solve problems that were quite beyond the power of logicians of an earlier time and to render some of the achievements of those logicians almost trivial by comparison.

**The syllogism.** The formulation of the syllogism is contained in Aristotle's *Organon*. It had a great fascination for medieval logicians for almost all their work centered about ascertaining its valid moods. The three characteristic properties of a syllogism are as follows:

1. It consists of three statements, the third one (conclusion) being a logical consequence of the first two (the premises).

2. Each of the three sentences has one of the forms



established, and since function is not contingent and  
 if its two sides are consistent and only if  
 its two sides are logically contradictory provided  
 its two sides are not contradictory. A knowledge of the  
 character of the negated function of the pre-  
 blem. The method makes use of the so-called De Mo-  
 ivre formulas  $(p \vee q) \equiv p \vee q$ ,  $(p \wedge q) \equiv (p \wedge q)$   
 in which the sign  $\equiv$  signifies that an expression  
 appearing on one side of the symbol may be replaced by  
 the expression appearing on the other side) and the  
 Boolean expansion formulae. For example, this  
 is an expression that holds for all of the possible  
 possibilities for the truth value of the disjunctive  
 formulae  $p$  and  $q$  (comparable) functions  
 For example,  $p \vee q$  is a true statement  $T$  if and  
 only if the statement  $(p \vee q) \vee (p \vee q)$  is true  
 does. The latter function is the Boolean expansion  
 of  $p \vee q$ . The method of negation can be illustrated  
 first by considering the truth function  
 $(p \vee q) \vee (q \vee p)$  analyzed by the matrix  
 method. We get

$$\begin{aligned} [(p \vee q) \supset q] &= (p \vee q) \supset q \\ &= [(p \vee q) \wedge (p \vee q)] \supset q \\ &= p \vee q \end{aligned}$$

A common fallacy (fallacy of the consequent) is to assert the antecedent of an implication whose consequent has been asserted. This is not permissible since the truth function  $[(p \supset q) \cdot q] \supset p$  is a tautology. Although such an argument is logically unwarranted it is frequently misled in thinking prementally a hypothesis  $p$  is proved if  $q$  follows from  $p$  numerous instances of the validity of  $q$  sometimes taken as further strengthening evidence of the validity of  $p$ .

- (1) If I speak the truth men will hate me if I lie, the god will hate me
- (2) I must either speak the truth or lie
- (3) Therefore either men will hate me or the gods will hate me

$$\begin{array}{ll} (1) & (p \supset q) \quad ( \supset ) \\ (2) & p \\ (3) & q \quad s \end{array}$$

**Deductive theory** The method by which all the theorems in geometry are proved. It is based on a set of axioms and postulates which are assumed to be true. The theorems are then proved by the use of logic and the axioms and postulates.

**Df. 110.** If  $p, q$  are elements of  $P$ ,  $p \supset q \equiv_D p, q$ .

true for all of the connectives. By use of the symbol  $\equiv_D$  to mean "is defined" it follows for example that

$$p \vee q \equiv_D (p \vee q) \quad p \supset q \equiv_D p \vee \neg q$$

$$p \equiv q \equiv_D ((p \vee q) \vee (\neg p \vee \neg q))$$

In fact all the connectives can be defined in terms of one binary operation the so-called Scheffer stroke function  $p|q$  which may be read "p is false or q is false". Thus

$$p \equiv_D p|p \quad p \vee q \equiv_D (p|q)|(p|q)$$

$$p \vee q \equiv_D (p|p)|(q|q)$$

$$p \supset q \equiv_D ((p|p)|(p|p)|(q|q))$$

The logical connectives the letters  $p, q, r$  and so on that stand for propositions (propositional variables) and the parentheses brackets and braces needed for punctuation are formal concepts. A propositional function is a combination of concepts formal or nonformal involving at least one variable which is not a proposition but becomes one when all the variables are given specified value. Examples are (1)  $p$  and  $q$  (2)  $x + y = 1$  and (3)  $x$  is president of the United States. Unlike a proposition a propositional function has no truth value. On the other hand the statement "For every integer  $x, x + 1 \neq 0$ " is a proposition (not a propositional function) even though it contains a (bound) variable. A formal function is a propositional function that contains only formal concepts (for example  $((p \vee q) \supset r) \supset s$ ). The form of a given proposition is the formal function obtained from it by substituting formal concepts for all non-formal ones. Thus  $p \vee q$  is the form of the proposition "Leonard is happy and the moon is blue". Notice that in formalizing the above proposition different propositions were replaced by different propositional variables. A truth function is a propositional function in which only propositional variables occur and such that the truth value of each proposition obtained from the function by substituting specific propositions for the variables depends only on the truth values of those propositions. Examples are (1)  $(p \vee q) \vee r$  (2) Napoleon was a great general and  $p$  (where  $p$  is a propositional variable). On the other hand Jones stated that  $p$  is not a truth function.

This article is concerned principally with the class of formal truth functions (that is those containing only formal concepts) and with an important subclass called tautologies (that is those formal truth functions such that every proposition obtained from them by substituting specific values (propositions) for the variables they contain has the truth value  $T$  (true)). A truth function is contingent provided it assumes both truth values  $T$  and  $F$  (false)—here only the classical two valued (Aristotelian logic) truth functions are considered—and self inconsistent provided it has only the value  $F$ . The character of a truth function is determined when it is shown to be self inconsistent, contingent or a tautology.

**Character of a truth function** A truth function may be analyzed by means of a truth table or matrix. Such tables are made first for the elementary truth functions  $p, p \vee q, p \wedge q, p \supset q$  as follows:

(I)	(II)	(III)	(IV)
$p \quad q$	$p \quad q \quad p \vee q$	$p \quad q \quad p \wedge q$	$p \quad q \quad p \supset q$
$T \quad T$	$T \quad T \quad T$	$T \quad T \quad T$	$T \quad T \quad T$
$T \quad F$	$T \quad F \quad T$	$T \quad F \quad F$	$T \quad F \quad F$
$F \quad T$	$F \quad T \quad T$	$F \quad T \quad F$	$F \quad T \quad T$
$F \quad F$	$F \quad F \quad F$	$F \quad F \quad F$	$F \quad F \quad T$

In every table each row of the last column gives that truth value of the function which is determined by the truth value (assigned to the variables) that are entered in the preceding columns of that row. For example the second row of table (IV) states that the truth function  $p \supset q$  has value  $F$  (that is is false) when  $p$  has value  $T$  (that is is true) and  $q$  has value  $F$ . Since all logical connectives used in the logic of propositions are expressible in terms of negation and disjunction only tables (I) and (II) are really essential but tables (III) and (IV) are convenient when analyzing complicated truth functions. Although the character of any truth function may be determined by constructing its truth table the method is tedious when the function contains a large number of variables: since the truth table of a truth function of  $n$  variables has  $2^n$  rows. An example the character of the truth function  $(p \supset q) \supset (q \supset p)$  may be determined using tables (I) and (IV) the truth table of the function is found to be

$p$	$q$	$p \supset q$	$q \supset p$	$(p \supset q) \supset (q \supset p)$
$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$	$T$
$T$	$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$
$F$	$T$	$T$	$F$	$T$
$F$	$F$	$T$	$T$	$T$

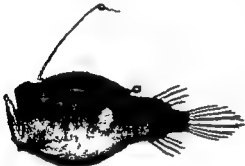
Since every entry in the last column is  $T$  the function  $(p \supset q) \supset (q \supset p)$  is seen to be a tautology. It may also be observed that in each row the entries in columns 5 and 6 are the same that is for any given values of  $p$  and  $q$  the functions  $p \supset q$  and  $q \supset p$  assume the same truth value. Hence  $(p \supset q) \supset (q \supset p)$  and the two functions are logically equivalent. The principle embodied in this equivalence (the law of contraposition) is often used in mathematics.

Another device for ascertaining the character of a truth function is the method of negation. It sometimes happens that the character of the function obtained by negating a given function can be easily

birds the legs, being set far back, are useful for swimming but make the birds quite clumsy on land. They pursue fish underwater swimming with the feet only. Loons are Holarctic in distribution all four species occur in North America three of them in the United States. Loons are beautiful interesting birds, but they are best known for their call, which has been described as a weird sort of laughter. See GATTIFORMES [J.D.A.]

Lophiniformes

The anglerfish has a deep relationship. This highly modified derivate is a nontoryan fish also known as the Pedicellatus was derived from perciform stock at least as early as Eocene time. The first dorsal fin reduced to few flexible rays, of which the first is placed on top of the head and bears a terminal bulb or tassel and functions as a fish glue. The epineurals are large and meet behind the postoccipital. There are no ribs or epipleurals and the gill opening is small and placed far back. Pelvic fins, if present, are thence and the pectoral girdle is not highly modified.



Anglerfish *Cryptopso* Length 4 ft (Aft)  
GAG d d T H B O Ichthyology US  
North Museum Sp. 112 1895

There are 3 subspecies 15 families, 50 genera and about 160 known species. All members are deep-sea dwellers. The females are much larger than the males. Luminescent organs may be present in the deep-sea species. The male is a dwarfed and attached as ectoparasite on the females. See Actinopterygii.

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Lophophore

A lophophore is a ciliated tentacles. It occurs in Bryozoa (Ectoprocta and Ectoprocta) Brachipoda, and Phlebobranchia. It is a ciliated tentacles only the mouth is the organ both mouth and tentacles. It is a lophophore with muscular tentacles and nervous system. The Ectoprocta can contract like a pharynx with the ciliated tentacles. Ectoprocta

both tentacles can be retracted into the body cavity. Tentacle number in bryozoans with a circular lophophore seems less variable than in bryozoans with a horseshoe-shaped lophophore. The lophophore serves as a trap for the food bearing stream. [M.D.R.]

Loran

A navigation system from which hyperbolic lines of position are determined by measuring the difference in time of arrival of pulses from widely spaced synchronized transmitting stations. The intersection of two such lines of position gives a navigational fix or location. Loran is used by commercial and military ships and aircraft. The name is derived from Long Range Navigation.

Developed during World War II to provide accurate navigational information over a wide area. Loran's nighttime service coverage was 63,000,000 square miles and its daytime coverage about 15,000,000 square miles by August, 1945.

Standard Loran Standard Loran transmitters send out trains of pulses about 50 microseconds wide at a recurrence rate of about 25 pulses per second (pps). A second bearing rate is 33 1/3 pps. The maximum power of a transmitter is 100 kilowatts. The range, although the average power is considerably less. Radio frequencies employed are in the order of 2 megacycles.

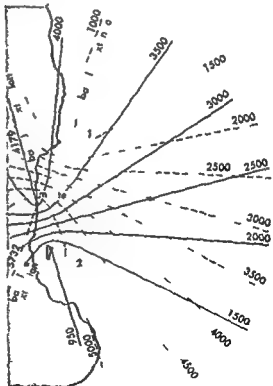


Fig 1 Two lines of position determined by measuring the difference in time of arrival of pulses from widely spaced synchronized transmitting stations. The intersection of two such lines of position gives a navigational fix or location. Loran is used by commercial and military ships and aircraft. The name is derived from Long Range Navigation.

- P1  $(p \vee p) \supset p$   
 I2  $q \supset (p \vee q)$   
 P3  $(p \vee q) \supset (q \vee p)$   
 P4  $(q \supset r) \supset [(p \vee q) \supset (p \vee r)]$

These simple tautologies were selected by Alfred North Whitehead and Bertrand Russell in their monumental work *Principia Mathematica* as the basic set from which all tautologies can be derived. They had an additional postulate

- P5  $[p \vee (q \vee r)] \supset [q \vee (p \vee r)]$

that was later shown by Paul Bernays to be deducible from the first four postulates and hence may be deleted as a postulate. It is interesting to note that none of the three Aristotelian principles (the laws of identity, contradiction, and excluded middle) are in this basic set. They are all deduced as theorems.

Before any theorems can be deduced there must be available rules that allow one to go from one step in a proof to another. Among such rules are those of formal substitution according to which (1) any truth function may be substituted for any of the variables occurring in a postulate or theorem provided the substitution is carried out completely and (2) any expression may be replaced by one definitionally identical. Among the rules of formal assertion are (1) the principle of inference (that is, if  $P$  and  $P \supset Q$  are postulates or proved theorems then  $Q$  is a theorem) and (2) the principle of adjunction (that is, if  $P$  and  $Q$  are postulates or theorems then  $P \wedge Q$  is a theorem).

It was proved by E. L. Post that postulates P1-P4 are consistent; that is, it is impossible to deduce from them truth functions  $\perp$  and  $X$ . He also proved that the four postulates form an independent set; that is, no one of the postulates can be deduced from the others.

**Non Aristotelian logics.** In these logics the principle of the excluded middle (that is, each proposition is either true or false) is not valid. There are then at least three truth values possible for a proposition, and for this reason such logics are known as many-valued. In a many-valued logic the *reductio ad absurdum* procedure that is so frequently used in mathematics is much less effective than it is in the two-valued classical logic, for if it has been shown that a given proposition is not false one may not conclude (as is permissible in Aristotelian logic) that the proposition is true. The Aristotelian tautology  $(p) \supset p$  is not a tautology in a logic with at least three truth values. Doubts that the classical logic is an appropriate one to use in mathematics stem from the modern view that the concepts and relationships dealt with in mathematics have no real existence in the external world. It would seem to follow that the a priori nature of true and false then disappears and with it the law of excluded middle. If "true" be interpreted in mathematics to mean "provable" and a proposition be called false provided its negation is provable, then the law of excluded middle

is demonstrably false since it has been shown that mathematics contains propositions  $p$  such that neither  $p$  nor its negation  $\neg p$  is provable. The intuitionistic school of the Dutch mathematician L. E. J. Brouwer rejects the excluded middle law and it forms no part of the logic of that school formulated by A. Heyting. See **BOOLEAN ALGEBRA**, **GEOMETRY**, **FLUID MECHANICS**, **MATHEMATICAL NOTATION**, **CONTEMPORARY MATHEMATICS**, **SCIENCE SCIENTIFIC METHODS**.

[L. M. H. L.]  
**Bibliography.** A. Ambrose and M. Lazerowitz, *Fundamentals of Symbolic Logic* 1948. A. Church, *Introduction to Mathematical Logic* 1956. E. L. Post, *Introduction to a general theory of elementary propositions* in *J. Math.* 43:163-185, 1921. A. Tarski, *Introduction to Logic* 3d ed. 1959. A. N. Whitehead and B. Russell, *Principia Mathematica* 2d ed. 1925.

## Longitude, astronomical

Longitude determined by astronomical observations as distinguished from geographic longitude which is that shown on a map. Astronomical longitudes are determined by the definition that the longitude from Greenwich is identical with the difference between Greenwich mean time and local mean time. Greenwich mean time is ascertained by the reception of radio time signals. Local mean time is determined by observing either meridian transits of celestial objects or their altitudes near the prime meridian. In either case the angle between the line of sight and the direction of gravity is measured, the direction of gravity being established with the aid of a spirit level, a liquid surface, or observation of the horizon corrected for the elevation of the observer. The direction of gravity is however not in general precisely toward the axis of rotation of Earth as it would be if Earth were concentrically homogeneous. The deviations are called deflections of the vertical; they commonly amount to some seconds of arc, occasionally reach a minute of arc, and vary from place to place. A map constructed exclusively from astronomical observations would in consequence be distorted by amounts varying from a few hundred feet to more than a mile. See **GEODESY**. [C. M. C.]

## Loon

Any of four species of aquatic birds of the genus *Gavia* comprising the family *Canidae* and the order *Gaviformes*. Loons are rather large diving

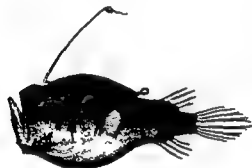


Loon *Gavia immer*; length 32 in. (E. L. P. H. F. H. book of Nat. Hist. McGraw-Hill 1949)

birds the lgs, being set far back, are useful for  
 umming but make the bird quite clumsy on  
 land. They pursue fish under water swimming with  
 the feet only. Loons are H laret c n d i r button  
 all four species occur: North America three of  
 them in the U ted St te Loons are beautiful, in  
 teresting birds, but they are best kn wn f r their  
 ill, h h has been described a a weird sort of  
 la ghier S GAVIFORMES. [J D B.]

# Lophiiformes

The anglerfishes and their relatives. This highly  
 modified der of ctin pt rygian fish s also  
 known as the Pedit lat w s derived from perc  
 f m t o c k t l e t early s Eocene time The  
 first d al fin m reduced to a few flexible rays of  
 h h the first is placed on top f the head and  
 bears a terminal bulb or t s e j and f ct ns as a  
 fishing l e The ep tuc are large and meet beh nd  
 the p oc pitaf There re no ribs o ep pleurae  
 d the gill pe ing small and placed far back.  
 Pelvic f a, if p ent re th ac c, and the pecto-  
 al girdle s ot bly modified.



Angl fish Crypt m l gth 4 ft (Aft  
 G & Good d T H B O l h i h l y U S  
 N il H m m Sp B il 2 1895)

There are 3 ub d r s 15 f mibe 50 g a  
 and bo t 160 k wn pec es All a e m ne M t  
 peces inh b t d p e trop c l h e w t  
 the latt form ar comm ly ed t r y n b b t  
 Lum n s c t r g m y b p t a d n me  
 deep-se spec s the male a dw r f e d d t  
 i h e d as e t o p a r t e a th fem les. S Ac  
 TL OPTERYCH

[R. M. B.]  
 B ilog phy E. Bertel e Th C at n d F h s  
 On g e y Tax nomy Distributio and Biol gy  
 Dan Rept. 39 1951

# Lophophore

A f i d f k b g c h t e t a c l e s I t o c r  
 in Bry zo (Ect p octa d E t p c t ) B h o  
 pod d Pho d a. I t c i r c u l a r t h e s h e  
 shaped. I some gr ps c i r c l e s o n l y t h e m t h  
 in t h e r g r p s, b o t h m u t h d a I t f l l i e  
 and p d d w t h m s e l t t s u e and n r v e  
 t r k a l t h E t o p o c t a m c a t a t l k  
 p h t o t h t e t l e a w h i n t h e E c t o p o c t

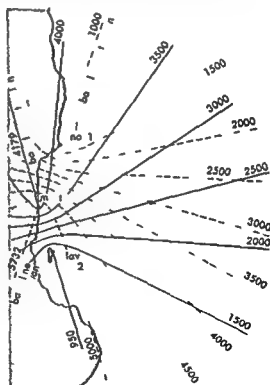
both it and the tentacle can be retracted into the  
 body cavity Tentacle number in bryozoans with a  
 circular lophophore seems less variable than in  
 bryozoans with a horseshoe-shaped lophophore. The  
 lophophore serves as a trough for the food bearing  
 stream [M D R.]

# Loran

A navigational system from which hyperbolic li  
 f position a e d t e r m i n e d b y m e a s u r i n g t h e d i f  
 f e r e n c e i n t i m e f t r a n s m i t t e d f r o m w i d e l y  
 spaced synchro sized tran smitting station The in  
 t e r s t a n f t w o s u c h l i n e s o f p o s i t i o n m e s a  
 n a i g t i o a l f i x r l c a t o n L o r a n u s d b y c o m  
 m e r c a l d m i l i t a r y s h i p s a n d a i r c r a f t T h e n a m e  
 d e r i v e d f r o m L o n g R a n g e N a v i g a t i o n

Developed during World War II t p r i d e a c  
 u r a t e n i g t i o a l i n f o r m a t i o n e r a w i d e r e a  
 L o r a n s m i g h t t i m e s e r v i c o e r a g e w a s 63 000 000  
 q u a r e m i l e a n d i t s d a y t i m e c o e r a g e a b o 1 15  
 000 000 square miles by August 1945

Standard loran Standard loran transmitters  
 e n d o t t i n s f p u l s e s a b o u t 50 m i c r o e c d s  
 w i d e a t a r e c u r r e n t r a t e a t r n e r 25 p l s e p e r  
 e o n d (pps) A s e c o n d b a c r a t m 33 1/3 p p T h e  
 p e a k p o w e r o f a t n m t t e r 100 k i l o w a t t o r  
 m e l t h o g h t h e a e r a g e p o w e r i s c o n s i d e r a b l y  
 l e s s R a d i o f r e q u e n c y e m p l o y e d a r e i n t h e o r d e r  
 o f 2 m e g a c y c l e s



Fg 1 Tw l f p o t g t d b y m s t  
 d l t t p d f i F t t h g t  
 D o h d l g t d b y m t d l g t  
 l d l b y m t d l 2 T h f d g t  
 t h l p t d l a y t m m s e d

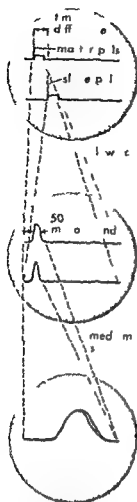


Fig 2 Pulses adjusted to sit on pedestals of electrically magnified and leading edges matched. Exact time delay is shown by markers or counter settings

One station of a pair is designated a master and normally sends an uninterrupted series of pulses. The second station located some 200-300 nautical miles away is called a slave and must maintain its radio frequency and pulse recurrence rate exactly in accord with those of the master. In addition the slave must maintain a fixed time difference (usually 1000 microseconds) between its reception of the master signal and its transmission of the slave pulse. If either the master or slave operator notices a change in these relationships the operator periodically interrupts (blinks) his signal until proper adjustments have been made. The blinking signal warns navigators of possible error.

Because two pairs of loran signals are necessary to obtain a navigational fix at the intersection of two lines of position it is economical to operate a loran chain in groups of three stations (triplet). The center station of a triplet acts as the master for the other two and transmits at two pulse recurrence rates for example 25 and 25½ pps.

The loran receiving equipment used by the navigator comprises a fixed tuned receiver and an indicator that includes a cathode ray oscilloscope. A 100 kilocycle crystal clock with good short term stability is the basis of sweep generating and divider circuits. The crystal circuit can be tuned over

a narrow frequency range sufficient to adjust to small changes at the transmitter or receiver. A multicontact switch in the divider circuits provides synchronism of the sweep circuits to each of the pulse rates assigned the various stations of a chain. By this means a number of transmitting stations can operate on the same radio frequency. The individual pairs of stations are identified by their pulse modulation. The stations are identified as master or slave by causing the master pulse to arrive before the slave pulse. The unique time delay between arrival of master and slave pulses at the navigator's equipment is the desired position information.

In use the master pulse appearing as a vertical line and identified by arriving first is set upon a pedestal on the upper trace of a slow sweep oscilloscope pattern. A movable pedestal on the lower trace is placed beneath the slave pulse. Because of their different recurrence rate all other pulses received appear to move relative to the desired pair.

A fast sweep shows the form of the pulses. The pedestal control permits superposition of the leading edges of the pulses. Time markers generated by the crystal clock and the dividers show the time delay accurate to within a microsecond between master and slave pulses. This delay is shown on the corresponding line of position on a chart or map.

A similar observation on the other pair of signals of the triplet provides a second delay time also shown as a numbered line on the chart. The time required for such an observation is generally less than 3 minutes. In aircraft navigation it is customary to take a second reading on the first pair of stations and to average the two for greater accuracy because of the distance traveled while taking the readings.

Some loran indicators are direct reading; that is, numbered dials or counters show the delay automatically after the pulses have been superimposed.

The distance at which reliable loran fixes are generally obtained is about 800 nautical miles over water from the pair of transmitting stations during

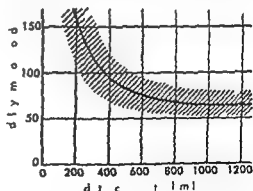


Fig 3 Sky wave delay as a function of distance shows a typical wave lag behavior. A shaded area shows limits of variation from J. A. Pearce, A. M. Kenz, and R. H. Woodward, *Loran* (McGraw-Hill 1948).



$(x' y' z' t)$  respectively the equations connecting these variables have the form  $(x^0 = ct \quad x = x^1 = y = x^2 = z)$

$$x^\alpha = \sum_{\beta=0}^3 L_{\beta}^{\alpha} (x^\beta - a^\beta) \quad (\alpha = 0 \ 1 \ 2 \ 3)$$

where  $a^0 \ a^1 \ a^2 \ a^3$  are arbitrary real constants  
Forming the two real matrices

$$L = \begin{bmatrix} L_0^0 & L_1^0 & L_2^0 & L_3^0 \\ L_0^1 & L_1^1 & L_2^1 & L_3^1 \\ L_0^2 & L_1^2 & L_2^2 & L_3^2 \\ L_0^3 & L_1^3 & L_2^3 & L_3^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\eta = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

the matrix  $L$  is subject to the condition

$$L^{-1} = \eta L \eta$$

where  $L$  and  $L$  are the inverse and transposed matrices of  $L$

The Lorentz transformation group is composed of four classes of transformations which can be organized as indicated in the following table depending on the algebraic signs of the pivotal element  $L_0^0$  of the matrix  $L$  and the determinant of  $L$  which is designated by  $D(L)$ . Positive signs are indicated by + and negative signs by - in the table

Classes of Lorentz transformations

	$L$	$D(L)$
Ppe	+	+
Imppe	-	+
	-	-

The improper Lorentz transformations involve changes of sign (reflections) of the space coordinates the time coordinate or both. For additional discussion of improper Lorentz transformations see SPACE TIME

The proper Lorentz transformations form a 10-parameter group which can be generated from translations of the space-time coordinates rotations of the space reference frame and transformations to uniformly moving systems. See RELATIVITY [E L H I]

Bibliography R Brauer and H Weyl *Am J Math* 57 425 1935 F D Murnaghan *The Theory of Group Representations* 1938

## Loschmidt's number

The number of molecules in 1 ml of a perfect gas at 1 atm pressure and 0°C. It is found by dividing the Avogadro number by the normal molar volume or normal gram molecular volume in milliliters. Its value is  $(2.68709 \pm 0.00009) \times 10^{23}$  per ml. See AVOGADRO NUMBER MOLAR VOLUME [T C W]

## Loudness

The psychological property of sound characterized by strength or weakness. It varies most directly with the physical intensity of sound increasing as intensity is increased and decreasing as intensity is decreased. Loudness also varies with frequency of sound waves. Tones of very low and very high frequencies require much more intensity than the

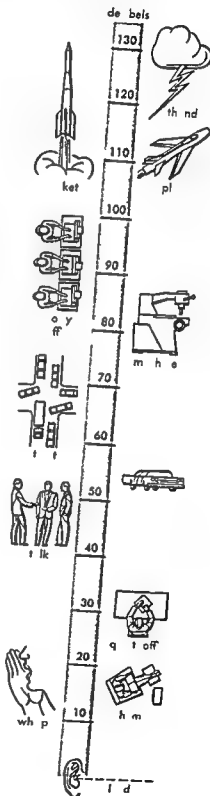


Fig 1 A decibel scale showing relative intensities of common sounds





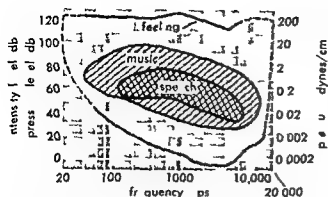


Fig 1 Approximate auditory limits of the ear. Shaded areas indicate the intensity and pressure levels found in speech and music. Standard reference levels are  $10^{-6}$  watt/cm<sup>2</sup> intensity (plane wave) and 0.0002 dyne/cm pressure.

Tests have shown that frequency ranges of 80–11,000 cps for music and 150–8000 cps for speech if uniform throughout the listening area give high quality reproduction in an otherwise distortionless system. The pressure range requirements are set primarily by listener preference. The listener is seldom interested in hearing a wanted sound in the presence of a competing unwanted sound (by definition noise) of the same pressure. Noise therefore commonly limits the minimum pressure of interest, particularly in music reproduction.

Alternatively, the requirements of the speaker may be considered from the viewpoint of the complete system designer who normally desires a speaker which does not noticeably narrow the frequency bandwidth, lower the signal to noise ratio, or increase the distortion of the system. Probably the most important requirement is that the speaker not introduce noises that are clearly spurious and unrelated to the signal, such as rattles and buzzes. Some physical performance characteristics can be adequately measured and specified; others cannot, however, and a thorough listening test is an essential part of any speaker testing program. The final judge of the value and adequacy of the speaker (and system) is the ear of the ultimate user. See PSYCHOACOUSTICS, SOUND REPRODUCTION SYSTEMS, ELECTRICAL.

**Physical performance characteristics.** Because of the importance of pressure and frequency in hearing, the loudspeaker output in terms of these variables is also important.

**Pressure response.** Measured at a specified frequency, the pressure response is the sound pressure in dynes/cm<sup>2</sup> at a designated location with respect to the speaker, per volt input. The pressure is commonly measured under actual or simulated outdoor free field conditions in the absence of unintended reflecting surfaces.

**Pressure response-frequency characteristic.** Commonly called simply the frequency response, this is the pressure response obtained as the test signal frequency is varied slowly over the audible

frequency range (20–20,000 cps). The response characteristic should be free of abrupt changes which are accompanied by transient and sometimes nonlinear distortion. A smooth curve also simplifies electrical equalization or compensation.

**Directional characteristics.** These are determined by measuring the pressure response at a sufficient number of points in the intended listening region and at a sufficient number of frequencies to predict the frequency response at any listener's position with the desired precision. The most common practice is to obtain frequency response characteristics at a few points equidistant from the speaker but subtending different angles with the principal axis of the speaker. On-axis curves are usually published because the pressure is normally a maximum, particularly at high frequencies where focusing is marked. In typical environments the response characteristic at 30° is much more useful for predicting the average response throughout the listening region. In use, the speaker is positioned and oriented to give the most favorable average pressure response-frequency characteristic in the listening region. See SOUND.

**Distortion.** Although distortion may be more broadly defined, loudspeaker distortion is commonly limited to nonlinear transient and frequency modulation distortion.

Nonlinear distortion arises from lack of proportionality between the electrical input and acoustical output signal with a sustained (steady state) input signal. With a sinusoidal input, integral multiples of the fundamental frequency or harmonics are generated. If two or more sinusoidal signals are applied, the nonlinearity gives rise to interaction between the two or intermodulation distortion, resulting in the generation of harmonics and the sum and difference frequencies of the fundamentals and harmonics.

Transient distortion arises from the inability of the speaker to follow instantaneously irregular changes in the wave shape of the electrical signal. Sharp peaks and valleys in the pressure frequency response curve are to be avoided because they indicate the presence of inadequately damped resonances which give rise to this distortion. The poorly damped resonances color the reproduction and when present at high frequencies they are detected as a ringing sound.

**Frequency modulation of a signal** is the alteration or modulation of its apparent frequency by a second or modulating signal. It occurs when the radiating diaphragm is vibrated toward and away from the listener by the modulating signal. The velocity component with respect to the listener produces a Doppler shift. See DOPPLER EFFECT.

**Electrical speaker impedance.** This is the complex ratio of the applied sinusoidal voltage across the signal terminals to the resulting current. The normal or loaded impedance  $Z_L$ , the free or unloaded impedance  $Z_0$ , and the blocked impedance  $Z_b$  correspond respectively to operation with all



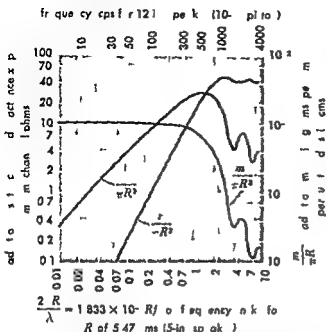


Fig 2 Average radiation resistance reactance and mass per square centimeter of a flat rigid piston vibrating in an infinite rigid nonabsorbing baffle. Piston radiates into a solid angle  $\Omega = 2\pi$  steradians (hemisphere).  $\lambda$  = length of radiated wave cm (from K. H. Henry and R. A. Engle, *Engineering Handbook*, 5th ed. McGraw-Hill 1959).

mon radiation controlling structures are conventional cabinets (open back boxes), total enclosures (closed boxes), vented or reflex enclosures (boxes closed except for one or more openings through which the rear radiation is modified and combined with the front radiation to augment the output over a narrow low frequency range) and horns. Speakers are also frequently classified as horn and hornless (direct radiator) type. A direct radiator speaker is one in which the diaphragm radiates directly into the listening region rather than through a horn. It necessarily employs some other type of radiation controlling structure such as those listed above.

**Radiation impedance.** The added impedance to motion of a diaphragm or sound radiating surface arising from its contact with air is called the radiation impedance. Radiation resistance is the component arising from energy radiation and radiation reactance is the reactive component. A major problem to the speaker designer and one of importance to the user is that of obtaining efficient energy transfer or coupling from a relatively high motor and diaphragm mechanical impedance to a low air radiation impedance.

The average radiation impedance per unit area of a flat piston is shown in Fig 2. When the length of the radiated wave  $\lambda$  exceeds the perimeter of the diaphragm (when  $\lambda > 2\pi R$  at low frequencies), the radiation reactance is mass reactance and proportional to frequency and the radiation resistance per unit area is proportional to the frequency squared and to the area. The acoustic power  $P$  radiated by a piston is

$$P = r v^2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ watt} \quad (3)$$

where  $r$  is the total radiation resistance (obtained by multiplying the per unit area value from Fig 2 by the area) and  $v$  is the rms piston velocity cm/sec.

If two or more identical speakers are mounted close together in a common plane and supplied with signal energy from the same source, the combined diaphragms will have substantially the same radiation impedance at low frequencies as a single diaphragm of the combined area. Differences occur as the wavelength diminishes (as frequency increases) and approaches half the diaphragm perimeter. By mounting a speaker adjacent to one or two large rigid nonabsorbing surfaces such as a floor or floor wall combination the radiation resistance may be made that of one speaker of a two or four speaker combination as shown in Fig 3. Each surface by complete wave reflection adds an image (by analogy with an optical mirror) which the diaphragm cannot distinguish from a true speaker or pair of speakers (see IMAGE ACOUSTICAL). An alternate way of considering this effect is to note that the solid angle into which the speaker radiates is  $\pi/2$  and  $\pi/4$  steradians or half quarter or eighth spheres respectively. A further advantage of locating a speaker in the corner is the narrower angle over which uniform high frequency response is required.

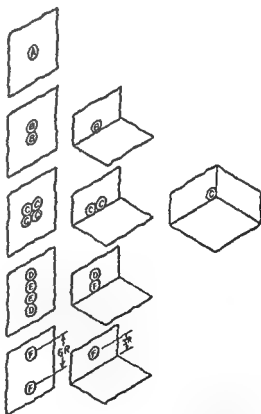


Fig 3 Effect of adding and reflecting sound energy on radiation impedance. All pistons are marked with the same letter (see the same diagram on impedance) (from K. H. Henry and R. A. Engle, *Engineering Handbook*, 5th ed. McGraw-Hill 1959).

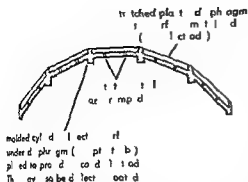


Fig. 4. S plified cto ol v w f o two-el c  
trods let t t p ke f th typ ed t obt  
pp tly cyl d c l wa e fro t at high fe-  
quencies. (F M K H ey d Rod E g = g  
H db k Sth d McG w Hll 1959)

**Direct radiator speakers** These re the most  
d ly u ed m k rs Of the c bsta ally all f  
the general pu p se and pec l p rpo e low fre-  
quency (woofer) speakers a m of the m ng-coil  
rpe. Electr tat c m ake a are sometimes u d a  
high frequency speaker (t eeter) n b ad band  
t m and nf equ tly a g ner l purp se peak

Mo g e il sp ak s W d ly ed be u e th y  
an co e a bro d f eq e cy ra g (5-8 ta es)  
these pe kers are omp ct rel bl a d low n  
co t. Their a ilable po e r syst m eff en s is  
lo t p cally 0.5-4"

Th r latu ly un form eff en y p t 1000 cps  
r m in att ed by pla ng the fu d mental me-  
chanical re onant frequen y near the lowest fre-  
quency of int rest This s th f equency at wh h  
the d ph gm and air mas s e es nated by the  
d ph gm s p n ion a d a tiff n s s f pr ent  
at f equ se that a e h ghe than this by a f c t r  
f from 2 (l octa e) to 10 r s the n rm l sm  
pedan e s sub ta ally th blocked impeda ce  
h h a m g l peaker is la gely re t  
t constant olt g and o tant ternal e st n  
t gal sou d l g e a fau ly nfo m cu t nd  
hen f re in this range Thw the d ph gm e-  
lecty s es m rse ly with f equ n y d th  
r d i ed m m s ind pe dent f f equ e cy

El s o l a c p k In the e p ake the me-  
chanical f es rep o ed by the cto f le  
trostat f l d St ct rally they m p t r i  
h h e lectrode s f e s m d m  
d thragm. Th m abl lectre de s comm nly  
thin pl t beet with a c nd ct e fa e whi h  
m y be a met l l so l or p ted film Tw  
f ed lectre des, one n e h s d of the m bl  
lectrode, are u ed n pu h pull types when th  
d a h gm am pl tude m y be r l t e ly la g A  
el f i x ed lect o de is u d n s g l o c d d type  
(see Fig 4) The re m m ly ed s h g h  
f eq ncy p ak or twee t A high d b  
p tential, f the o d f k l olt app l ed be-  
t een the f i x ed d m ble elect o d s to n e

sen s itivity and r duce d tort on Th ac potent l  
m uperimpo ed on the de resulting in an altern t  
t g force on the diaph gm Some ad antages of  
the electro tati peaker are (1) the diaphragm  
can be very l ght (2) the for c is d i tribut d er  
the d a phragm (3) the transient and phase d i tor  
t on m y be kept l w by proper de ign and (4) the  
cost may be low Some of the disad antages are  
(1) the perm i ble diaphragm amplitude i n  
m ally l w leading to large area d a ph gms r  
limiting the lower cut ff frequency (2) the norm l  
m p dance is substantially that f a capac tor and  
i d i f f i c l t mat h pr p rly e cept n limited  
freque cy ra ge and (3) becau e of the h gh po-  
tentials d electric pr blems are in ol ed See ELEC  
TROSTATICS

**Radiation controlling structures** These struc-  
ture wh ch control the d i erg nce of the sound  
way and the interaction between front and back  
radiati n are primarily f the h rn or h rn l s en  
clos re types.

**Enclos es** These are rad ati n c ntr lli g struc-  
tures of the hornless type. E closures may be cl s-  
sified as t tal in which the rear radiati n s om-  
pletely absorbed by the clo ed rear m cl sur nd  
ented r r flex in which the re r radiati on is  
h lfted in ph m mod fied in amplitude, and com-  
bined with the f ont radiati n to incr ase the tot l  
r diati on n a freque cy ba d of appr ximately an  
oct e j st bo m the lowest tran mitted frequ n y  
At still l wer freq e ses the total ad at on i sub-  
stant ally red c d by pres ure ne tr lization or de-  
stru ti e i fference

T t l ncl su es are used pr mar ly when the  
lume is smaller tha d r ble for a ref l x type.  
Be u the r tiff e l mits the m m m d a  
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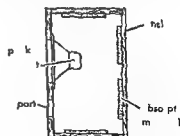


Fig 5 O typ f fl e i wh h p r t  
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m m m d f m th p r t d b t Ph h ft f  
b k s d r d t n b r d b y h f l  
l m d p r t m s f m K H y d R d  
E g g H db k Sth d M G w Hll 1959)

**Horns** Structurally a horn is a rigid nonabsorbing tapered duct or passage. It may be straight, bent, or folded with concentric sound passages. The small end to which the horn unit (speaker) is attached is called the throat and the large radiating end is called the mouth.

Functionally it is (1) a tapered acoustic transmission line used to match the relatively high impedance looking back into the diaphragm to the relatively low radiation impedance seen at the mouth and (2) a device which by virtue of its mouth size and shape controls the directional properties.

V. Salmon has discovered a family of horns with interesting properties to which many common horns belong. In the Salmon or hyperbolic exponential horns the cross-sectional area  $A$  is related to the axial distance by

$$A = A_t \left[ \cosh \left( \frac{x}{x_0} \right) + T \sinh \left( \frac{x}{x_0} \right) \right]^2 \quad (1)$$

where  $A_t$  is the throat area,  $x_0$  is a constant fixing the axial scale of length,  $T$  is a constant determining a member of the general family, and the  $\cosh$  and  $\sinh$  are the hyperbolic exponential cosine and sine functions, respectively. The longitudinal sections of the Salmon horns for various values of  $T$  are shown in Fig. 6 for straight axis circular horn.

The performance of a horn depends principally on the throat impedance and its dependence on frequency. Although wave reflected from the mouth introduce variations with frequency into the throat impedance, it has been found that the average impedance is close to that of a horn with no reflected wave. The throat impedance in mechanical ohms of catenoidal horns with rigid nonabsorbent walls and negligible reflected waves is given by

$$Z_t = R_t + jX_t \\ = A_t \rho c \frac{[1 - (f/f_c)^2]^{1/2} - j(Tf/f_c)}{1 - (1 - T^2)(f/f_c)^2} \quad (5)$$

where  $\rho c$  and  $T$  have been defined previously,  $f$  is the frequency and  $f_c$  is the cutoff frequency given by  $f_c = c/2x_0$ . Thus the reference axial length  $x$

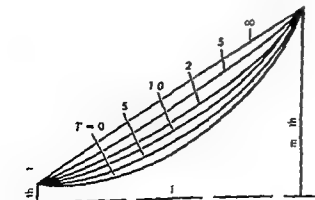


Fig. 6 Longitudinal section of straight axis circular cross-sectional horns of hyperbolic exponential catenoidal family (From K. H. N. Y. d. Radio Eng. Eng. Hb. book 5th ed. McGraw Hill 1959)

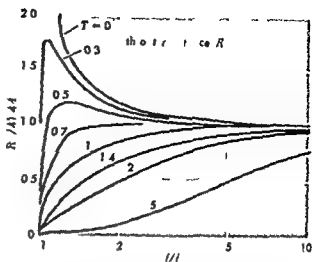


Fig. 7 Frequency dependence of throat resistance for horns of various values of  $T$ . Below  $f_c$  the resistance is zero. The factor 41.4 is the value of  $\rho c$  in cgs units at room temperature (From K. H. N. Y. d. Radio Eng. Eng. Hb. book 5th ed. McGraw Hill 1959)

is of fundamental importance in determining the behavior of the impedance. In Fig. 7 the behavior of  $R_t$  for various values of  $T$  is shown.

**Speaker systems** Two or more identical speakers may be used to improve the low frequency efficiency and increase the permissible input and output powers or by proper relative orientation improve the directional properties. More commonly the two or more units cover complementary frequency range. The more important advantages are (1) improved frequency response because each type of unit covers a moderate range (2) higher system efficiency for the same reason (3) improved directivity characteristic because the diaphragm (or horn mouth) is in the highest frequency range may be made relatively small (4) improved transient response because many of the artifices used to obtain extended frequency ranges in single units make the transient response worse particularly at high frequencies (5) reduced intermodulation because large amplitudes are confined to speakers reproducing low frequencies and (6) reduced frequency modulation.

Coaxial units comprise two or less commonly three speaker units mounted on substantially the same axis in an integrated mechanical assembly. Appropriate wave filters or dividing networks control the amplitude and phase of the electrical signal reaching each unit. The term axial speaker should be reserved for a coaxial unit with its required acoustic radiation controlling structure.

**Speaker placement** In single channel or monophonic systems, speaker placement is largely controlled by the desirability of uniform response in the listening area. Corner placement in a room is desirable to improve the low frequency efficiency and to reduce the angle the high frequency radiation must cover. In stereophonic systems multiple speakers and signal channels are used to reproduce



## Lovebird

A name applied to several small parrots or parakeets kept in captivity. They are native either of Africa or South America. The green lovebirds are American. Lovebirds have short beaks and long



The lovebird *Melospiza u. dulcis* length to 8 in (From E. L. Palmer *Feldbook of Natural History* McGraw Hill 1949)

narrow tails. They are easily tamed and make fine gentle pets. They may be taught to talk although the ability of individuals to learn words varies greatly. See PARROT PSITTACIFORMES [JDB]

## Low level counting

The measurement of very small amounts of radioactivity. The instruments used are special modifications of standard radioactivity measurement equipment designed to yield greater detection efficiencies and lower background counting rates than those necessary for ordinary applications. These techniques are applied mainly to the measurement of long-lived natural radioactive isotopes and their daughter products, cosmic ray produced isotopes and isotopes produced artificially during nuclear explosions.

Because of the statistical error associated with the measurement of radioactivity, accurate assays of samples with small amounts of radioactivity cannot be made in the presence of large amounts of radiation from other sources. This can be readily seen from the relationship between the sample count rate  $A$ , its percentage error  $E$ , the background count rate  $A_b$ , and the length of time the sample is counted  $t$ :

$$E \cong \sqrt{\frac{A_b}{tA}} \times 100$$

For example, the percentage error for an overnight measurement of a sample with an activity of 1

count/min in the presence of a background of 90 counts/min is 30%. This error can be decreased by reducing the background or by increasing the sample count rate. Doubling the sample count rate is twice as effective as halving the background. Thus most low level counters are designed (1) to hold as large a sample as it is practical to obtain and to prepare (2) to record with as high an efficiency as possible the radiations from the sample (3) to have as low a background counting rate as possible. The instruments which have been most widely used are internal gas counters, solid source  $\beta$  counters and scintillation counters. For a general discussion of various types of particle counters and a listing of related articles, see PARTICLE DETECTOR.

For internal gas counters, the sample itself is used as the filling gas for a discharge tube such as an ionization chamber, proportional counter or Geiger counter. Because of the high detection efficiency of such chambers, they are ideal for measuring the radiations from  $\alpha$  and weak  $\beta$  emitting isotopes. The counters are designed to hold the available sample in a minimum volume. Where large quantities of sample are available, counters as large as 10 liters have been used with gas pressures up to 5 atmospheres.

For a counting the background can be largely eliminated by selecting only the most energetic pulses produced in the counter. For weak  $\beta$  detection, however, it is usually impossible to separate the sample pulses from those caused by  $\beta$  particles emitted from the materials making up the counter by  $\gamma$  rays entering the counter from the outside and by neutrons and mesons produced by cosmic ray activity.

**Gamma ray background.** The greater part of the  $\gamma$  ray background can be eliminated by placing the counter in an iron or lead shield. Because of its purity, mercury is sometimes used as an inner shield to remove  $\gamma$  radiation originating from impurities in the iron or lead. Even with an 8 in iron shield and a 2 in inner mercury shield, a small  $\gamma$  ray component remains. Since these residual radiations result mainly from the reaction of cosmic rays which have penetrated the shielding, their contribution to the background may change with time. This is because the cosmic ray flux at a given point on the earth's surface varies slightly with solar activity and with atmospheric pressure, the former affecting the amount of magnetic shielding required and the latter the amount of physical shielding. This time variation introduces a significant uncertainty into the background counting rate in applications involving very small amounts of radiation, such as carbon 14 dating beyond 30,000 years.

Two methods for eliminating this background have been devised. One is to use additional physical shielding to absorb the cosmic rays. H. DeVries found that by adding 30 in of iron to the counter and by placing a 6-in neutron absorber such as paraffin plus boric acid between the iron



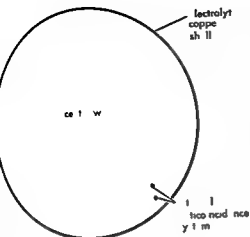


Fig. 1 Cross section of proportional gas counter. The thin window is made of mica or Mylar. The electrolyte is a solution of cuprous chloride in sulfuric acid. The gas is a mixture of argon and carbon dioxide. The counter is operated at a pressure of 1-2 atmospheres.

and the inner member is held in place by a lead shield. The outer member is made of a material which is transparent to the radiation being measured. The counter is operated at a pressure of 1-2 atmospheres.

Since the mode of operation of the counter is such that the detector is a thin window, the counter is sensitive to the radiation which enters the counter through the window. The counter is operated at a pressure of 1-2 atmospheres.

Neutrons and mesons. The counter is also sensitive to neutrons and mesons. The counter is operated at a pressure of 1-2 atmospheres.

low level counting is shown in Fig. 2.

Gas counters. In the case of gas counters, the detector is a thin window. The counter is operated at a pressure of 1-2 atmospheres.

Solid source counters. For solid source counters, the detector is a thin window. The counter is operated at a pressure of 1-2 atmospheres.

Scintillation counters. Many low level radioactivity measurements are made with scintillation counters. The energy of the radiation is converted to light which is recorded by a photomultiplier tube. The method is especially useful for the detection of small quantities of weak  $\beta$  radiation from samples of liquid form. The sample is dissolved in a suitable liquid phase and placed in a cell of gas detector. The light produced in the gas detector is measured by a photomultiplier tube. The efficiency is as high as 80 per cent for the detection of the weak  $\beta$  particles from  $^{14}\text{C}$  and  $^3\text{H}$ .

Since the type of counter is more sensitive than a standard gas-type tube, the counter can be placed in a physical shield to protect the operator from the radiation.

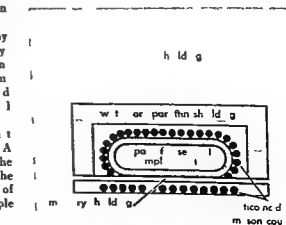


Fig. 2 Cross section of thin window gas counter. The thin window is made of mica or Mylar. The electrolyte is a solution of cuprous chloride in sulfuric acid. The gas is a mixture of argon and carbon dioxide. The counter is operated at a pressure of 1-2 atmospheres.

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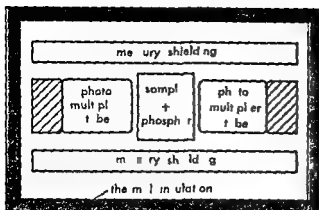


Fig 3 Idealized diagram of a low level liquid scintillation counting system. The two photomultiplier tubes are connected so that only pulses occurring simultaneously in both tubes are recorded. The mal background is further reduced by cooling the whole apparatus in a refrigeration unit.

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## Low temperature physics

A study of the properties of gross matter at such low temperature that the quantum character of the substance becomes observable. Most famous among the effects attributed to the quantum mechanical nature of macroscopic matter are (1) superconductivity (2) superfluid liquid helium (3) magnetic cooling and (4) nuclear orientation. The topic of cryogenics includes the method of producing low temperatures. In addition to the considerable technology involved in refrigeration, there is a very important section of low temperature physics concerned with temperature measurement and related instrumentation.

**Production of low temperature.** Low temperatures such as those of liquid hydrogen (normal boiling point 20.4 K) and liquid helium (normal boiling point 4.2 K) are produced from the gas phase by the use of three mechanical devices: (1) the gas compressor or pump, (2) heat exchangers at several places along the path of flow of the gas, and (3) devices for expanding the gas, such as a piston expander and a throttle valve. The cycle is shown schematically in Fig 1 and the flow of helium gas may be traced from the intake of the compressor past the water-cooled heat ex-

changer and into the liquefier. A basic concept to grasp in understanding why the temperature drops when the gas is allowed to expand again is the piston is that the process has occurred at constant entropy. Entropy  $S$  is a thermodynamic property of the system of gaseous molecules and it is useful to think of its physical meaning as being that of the degree of disorder of the system. The entropy versus temperature plot in Fig 2 shows for the gas system a series of constant pressure curves. The thermodynamic process at the compressor or (with water cooling to keep the temperature constant) is shown as the path from point  $\alpha$  to the point  $\beta$ . The entropy decrease  $\Delta S = \Delta Q/T$  where  $\Delta Q$  is the heat removed at temperature  $T$  during this reversible process that is assumed to be ideal. The diagram also shows an expansion of the gas against the piston as the path from point  $\beta$  to the point  $\gamma$ . This is done at constant entropy so that one may think of the pressure and temperature variables as having shifted suitably to preserve the degree of disorder. Energy was removed from the

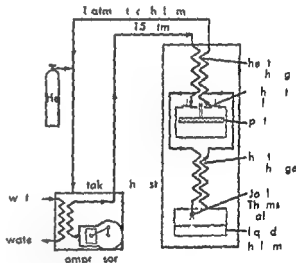


Fig 1 Equipment for producing liquid helium

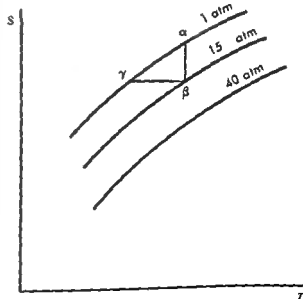


Fig 2 Entropy temperature plot for helium gas



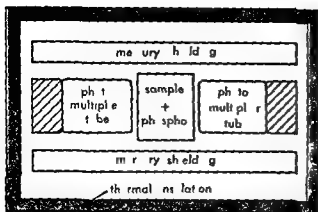


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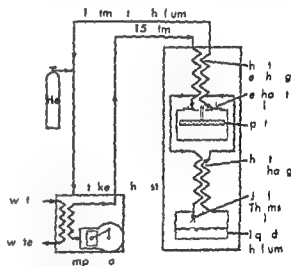


Fig 1 Equipment for producing liquid helium.

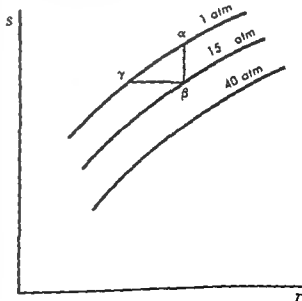


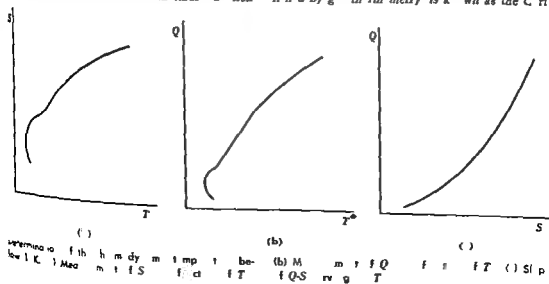
Fig 2 Entropy temperature plot for helium gas.

gas is allowed a fixed and known volume in thermal equilibrium with the object whose temperature is to be determined. Measurement of the gas pressure would be sufficient for specification of the temperature, provided the value of the constant in the equation relating  $P$  and  $T$  were known. The value of this constant is a convenient arbitrary factor, the number assigned to it merely fixes the scale of degrees. Use of a single law of the gas nature is a obvious disadvantage, however, and to settle this弊端 decided by international agreement to assign to the triple point of water the absolute temperature 273.16 K. A measurement of the gas thermometer pressure at this relatively easily reproduced fixed point temperature then defines the temperature of the gas thermometer. The following fundamental difficulties arise. Although certain gases are more nearly perfect than others, an ideal gas as such does not exist. Practical measurements, therefore, are necessary to modify the simple procedure outlined above to correct for the deviations from ideal gas behavior. In addition, the precision must be taken to be a reliable result. To the extent that the measurement has been effectively made, a departure from ideal absolute temperature is a consequence obtained which can be assigned a low temperature reference states or the appropriate temperature values of standard secondary thermometers. Below 1 K, however, the thermometer becomes less effective, the maximum pressure at which gas thermometry is applicable is limited to minimize nonideality, to preserve the gas behavior at low temperatures, and to preserve the gas behavior at low temperatures. Adiabatic demagnetization below 1 K. Since the measurement of temperature below 1 K is extremely difficult, the measurement of the low temperature of the subject will be very difficult. The experimental difficulties in the production of low temperatures are large, and the entropy density must be cooled. An alternative method

of the entropy by an appropriate parameter change followed by an entropy reversal of the same parameter change to its original value always results in a lowering of the temperature. At temperature 1 K and below the entropy changes accompanying any parameter change are small, with gases such as the paramagnetic materials and other temperature reduction is possible. To continue down the temperature scale a different physical system equilibrium is required at the temperature of large amounts of entropy. Since the entropy of all systems decreases with temperature, however, the case of the systems

is a table. In 1933 W. F. Giauque and P. Debye independently suggested that paramagnetic salts might satisfy the above requirements on the premise that the random orientation of the magnetic moments of the paramagnetic atoms in the crystal would contribute to the entropy of the order of 1 K. An appreciable amount to the entropy of the system if the system is magnetized thermally at 1 K, the elementary magnets will be aligned parallel to the field direction and the system entropy correspondingly decreased. If the system then thermally allowed to demagnetize it will correspondingly to that temperature at which would it have been sufficient in zero field to have reduced the entropy by the same amount. This thermodynamic process is the technique of low temperature production by adiabatic demagnetization. See CRYOGENICS.

In order to measure the temperature at a specified by the process a new kind of thermometer is required. Again, to satisfy the absolute temperature reference standard, the paramagnetic salt related to imply that the entropy of the system is a constant. The entropy of the system of gas thermometry this parameter may be used to establish a point on the temperature scale for use below 1 K. This relationship is  $T = C \theta / \chi$  where  $\chi$  is the magnetic susceptibility of the salt and the constant is determined by the magnetic susceptibility of the salt as the Curie



Nuclear orientation becomes particularly interesting if the oriented nuclei are radioactive. Anisotropy of the intensity of  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  radiation from oriented nuclei has been observed experimentally. These experiments have led to important conclusions in the field of theoretical physics of nuclear interactions. See PARITY (QUANTUM MECHANICS)

The properties of matter at low temperatures can be most surprising. There are a large number of metals which become superconductors at low temperatures such that the electric field  $E$  within the metal is zero. The magnetic field described by the induction vector  $H$  is also zero within the metal superconductor. Many of these same metals exhibit at low temperatures (and in the normal state) an unusual diamagnetism with a peculiar periodic dependence on the applied magnetic field. The effect was first noted by W. De Haas and P. van Alphen and has been extensively studied by D. Shoenberg. Magnetic nuclear resonance studies on a number of systems have been useful in understanding the properties of matter at low temperature. For example, solid hydrogen is normally composed of 75% ortho molecules and 25% para molecules. The ortho molecules have the magnetic spin moments of the two protons aligned parallel and thus

2 1956-1957 F. London *Superfluids* vols 1 and 2, 1950 and 1954 C. F. Squire *Low Temperature Physics* 1953

## Low temperature thermometry

The very low temperatures produced by various cryogenic techniques are measured like any others by thermometers. Because conventional thermometers lose their sensitivity as the temperature is reduced, those used in this temperature region tend to be somewhat unfamiliar. The low temperature thermometers nevertheless meet the two main criteria required of all thermometers: reproducibility and a monotonic variation with temperature (preferably according to some simple law) of the thermometric property being measured. Additional conditions such as high sensitivity and independence of the thermometer readings from magnetic field may also be imposed for special applications. Factors such as these as well as the degree to which the instrument must satisfy the two basic criteria mentioned above determine the selection of the thermometer.

For accurate work, low temperature thermometers must be calibrated before each use either at a number of well known fixed and reproducible temperature points or against a suitable standard thermometer. Accurate and relatively simple standard secondary thermometers which have themselves been calibrated against a primary standard are readily available. The primary standards serve as their name implies chiefly to establish secondary thermometer temperature scales, improve existing ones and accurately determine useful fixed points of temperature, for example the triple point of hydrogen.

Low temperature thermometry resolves itself therefore into the basic problem of assigning numbers on the absolute temperature scale to achievable and reproducible low temperature data and the choice and the calibration of suitable instruments for the practical measurement of low temperatures.

Temperatures on the absolute scale are defined in terms of the second law of thermodynamics by the equation  $T = dQ/dS$ . The absolute temperature of any system is therefore given by the limiting value of the reversible heat absorbed by the system per unit change of its entropy. To determine a temperature on the basis of the above definition would be a formidable task, however. Fortunately it can be shown that valid absolute or thermodynamic temperatures may also be obtained from measurements with a gas thermometer. Although a laborious technique, gas thermometry is ordinarily much simpler than a temperature determination based upon reversible heat and entropy measurements. See ENTROPY.

**Gas thermometry above 1 K.** Gas thermometry is based upon the concept of an ideal gas for which it may be shown that the pressure times the volume equals a constant times the temperature or  $PV = RT$ . Hence if a definite amount of such a

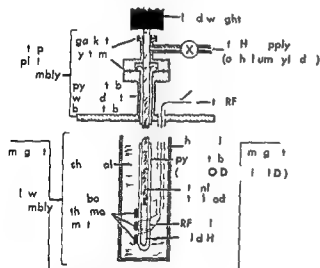


Fig. 4. Apparatus for liquid hydrogen studies.

results in allowed rotational quantum numbers of  $J = 1, 3, \dots$  and so on. Even in the solid state and even at 1 K the ortho molecules must rotate. By magnetic nuclear resonance studies and by calorimetric studies the detailed way in which the molecule occupies the zero point energy of rotation has been studied. Figure 4 illustrates the apparatus for these studies made on solid hydrogen under pressure. See ABSOLUTE ZERO, CRYOGENIC ENGINEERING, ENTROPY, HELIUM, LIQUEFACTION OF GASES, LOW TEMPERATURE THERMOMETRY, REFRIGERATION, STATISTICAL MECHANICS, SUPERCONDUCTIVITY, SUPERFLUIDITY. [C.F.S.]

**Bibliography.** S. Flügge (ed.) *Handbuch der Physik* vols 14 and 15, 1956; C. J. Gorter (ed.) *Progress in Low Temperature Physics* vols 1 and



Low-temperature thermometers (Cont)

Temperature-measuring instrument	Applicable temperature range K	Appropriate precision limit K	Remarks
Magnetic thermometers	For all temperatures below 1 K. (has been used for special purposes at higher temperatures)	Depends upon temperature range and humidity. For precision about 0.001	Secondarily standard differential temperature samples may require standard alloys salts are unstable and must be carefully handled to ensure constancy of composition. Useful near 0.1 to 1 K. using a calibration device needed the theoretical accuracy is typically below 0.1 K. The susceptibility serves as a thermometric parameter
Electronic paramagnetic material: bromine, thylamine, etc.	10 to 1		
Less paramagnetic materials such as copper	10 <sup>-2</sup> to 10		

In the case of a gas thermometer no ideal gas exists any more than do a diatomic gas, a diatomic gas, but at low temperatures the molecular degrees of freedom are not all active. At lower temperatures these relations become less and less certain, and actually completely reliable. For the best of the low temperature range, it has proved necessary to utilize the best thermodynamic definition of temperature given at the beginning of the article. The definition of the Kelvin scale is based on the triple point of water, which is defined as 273.15 K. The Celsius scale is defined as 100 degrees between the triple point of water and the boiling point of water at standard pressure. The Fahrenheit scale is defined as 180 degrees between the freezing point and the boiling point of water at standard pressure. The Rankine scale is defined as 180 degrees between absolute zero and the boiling point of water at standard pressure. The Réaumur scale is defined as 80 degrees between the freezing point and the boiling point of water at standard pressure. The Delisle scale is defined as 100 degrees between the boiling point of water at standard pressure and the freezing point of water at standard pressure. The Newton scale is defined as 100 degrees between the freezing point of water at standard pressure and the boiling point of water at standard pressure. The Fahrenheit scale is defined as 180 degrees between the freezing point and the boiling point of water at standard pressure. The Rankine scale is defined as 180 degrees between absolute zero and the boiling point of water at standard pressure. The Réaumur scale is defined as 80 degrees between the freezing point and the boiling point of water at standard pressure. The Delisle scale is defined as 100 degrees between the boiling point of water at standard pressure and the freezing point of water at standard pressure. The Newton scale is defined as 100 degrees between the freezing point of water at standard pressure and the boiling point of water at standard pressure.

is therefore obtained in the same units as the present day.

**Low temperature thermometers** Low temperature thermometers are used for the measurement of low temperatures. They are classified into two main groups: gas thermometers and resistance thermometers. Gas thermometers are based on the principle of the ideal gas law, and resistance thermometers are based on the principle of the temperature dependence of the electrical resistance of certain materials. The most common gas thermometers are the constant volume gas thermometers and the constant pressure gas thermometers. The most common resistance thermometers are the platinum resistance thermometers and the copper resistance thermometers. The platinum resistance thermometers are the most accurate and are used for the definition of the Kelvin scale. The copper resistance thermometers are used for the measurement of temperatures between 4 K and 15 K. The gas thermometers are used for the measurement of temperatures between 1 K and 300 K. The resistance thermometers are used for the measurement of temperatures between 4 K and 15 K. The gas thermometers are used for the measurement of temperatures between 1 K and 300 K. The resistance thermometers are used for the measurement of temperatures between 4 K and 15 K.

**MEASUREMENT** [EVEN]  
Bibliography: L. C. Jackson, *Low Temperature Physics*, 4th ed. rev. 1965, N. Kurti, *Magnetically Induced Low Temperature*, and nuclear magnetic resonance, *Ann. Rev. Phys. Chem.* 6(3) 1101 (1957), H. C. Wolfe (ed.), *Temperature and Its Measurement*, *Cont. of Science and Technology*, vol. 2, 1942, d 1965.

**Lubricant**

A gas liquid is used to prevent contact between the moving parts of a machine and thereby reduce friction and wear. In many machines cooling by the lubricant is a very important feature. The lubricant may be used up to the point of the solid on the surface of the parts.

Liquid hydrocarbon is the most commonly used lubricant. It is used in many applications where good cooling is required. In many cases the lubricant is used in a closed system and the oil is recycled. The lubricant is used in many applications where good cooling is required. In many cases the lubricant is used in a closed system and the oil is recycled. The lubricant is used in many applications where good cooling is required. In many cases the lubricant is used in a closed system and the oil is recycled.

## Low temperature thermometers

Temperature-measuring instrument	Applicable temperature range K	Approximate precision at low temperature limit K	Remarks
Thermocouples			Simple construction low cost wide range small size ease of installation rapid response no heat introduction at point of measurement careful selection of wires necessary to avoid spurious thermal electromotive force because of inhomogeneities in lead in wires rapid loss of sensitivity occurs with decreasing temperature calibrations stable except at lowest temperatures
Copper-constantan	14-300	0.1	Precision at 20 K approximately 0.01 at 90 K 0.01 low temperature calibration may change by 0.5 between coolings
2.1% Cobalt in gold copper	4-70	0.1	Sensitivity at 20 K about 2½ times that of copper-constantan reproducibility of thermoelectric force between different melts about 7% calibration valid so long as thermocouple not heated above ambient temperature
Resistance thermometers			Normally conducting metals partial superconductors and semiconductors have been used all introduce heat at point of measurement
Platinum	4-1100	0.01	Basis of International Temperature Scale to 90 K from 90 to 4 K can be accurately calibrated calibration stable with respect to thermal cycling if Pt is extremely pure and if wires supported in strain free configuration at 0 K and above sensitivity is of order of 10 <sup>-3</sup> degrees Pt resistance thermometers rapidly lose sensitivity below this temperature
Leaded phosphor bronze	0.03-7	0.001	Sensitivity has been extended to 10 <sup>-4</sup> degrees measured resistance dependent upon measuring current and upon magnetic field magnetic field dependence can be reduced by addition of bismuth difficult to reproduce same temperature a coefficient of resistivity in successive wire samples
Carbon	0.0-20	0.001	Highly sensitive capable of measuring temperature changes of the order of 10 <sup>-4</sup> degrees resistance dependent upon measuring current but essentially independent of magnetic field
Vapor pressure thermometers	Triple point to critical point of all liquefied gases	Approx 0.001	Secondarily standard sensitive slow reading following conditions must be fulfilled to ensure reliable results uniform liquid temperature uniform and known liquid composition (for example ortho-para composition in liquid hydrogen) accurate pressure measurement simple vapor pressure thermometers can be constructed which are rugged reliable and sensitive
Gas thermometers	1-800	0.001	Primary standard requires extreme care in order to obtain accurate results any gas whose behavior is almost ideal may be used in gas thermometer at low temperatures the requirement restricts permissible gases to hydrogen and helium the latter being only suitable for use at lowest temperatures crude gas thermometers have been constructed using rough test rod pressure indicators to provide reliable low temperature indicators for engineering uses (gas liquefiers)



temperatures or in places where renewal of liquid lubricants is impossible solid lubricants such as graphite or molybdenum disulfide may be employed

**Petroleum lubricants** Crude petroleum is an excellent source of lubricants because a very wide range of suitable liquids varying in molecular weight from 150 to over 1000 and in viscosity from light machine oils to heavy gear oil can be produced by various refining processes. Studies carried out by the American Petroleum Institute and others have established that crude petroleum fractions consist of saturates (normal iso and cycloparaffins) monoaromatics which may contain saturated rings as well as saturated side chains substituted polyaromatics hetero compounds containing sulfur nitrogen and oxygen and a phalitic material made up of polycondensed aromatics and hetero compounds. Of these the wax free saturates and monoaromatics are desired in the finished oil in order to obtain the desired viscometric properties and oxidation and thermal stability and so far as possible the other types of compounds are generally removed. Classically only those crudes (so called paraffinic crudes) relatively rich in the desired type of hydrocarbons were used in lubricating oil manufacture. By atmospheric distillation neutrals were produced as distillates and the residual fractions were treated with activated clays which removed a phalitic and hetero material to produce bright stock.

In modern refining vacuum distillation removes the desired hydrocarbons from the asphaltic constituents (which may be present in amounts up to 40% of the total) and gives oils in the required viscosity and boiling range. Extraction of the distilled fractions with solvents such as liquid sulfur dioxide, furfural and phenol permits the removal of the polyaromatic and hetero compounds to improve viscosity temperature characteristics (viscosity index VI) and stability of the oil. Dewaxing removes the high melting paraffins.

If the viscosity index of the oil is not important for a particular application the most reactive polyaromatics and hetero compounds may be removed by treatment with concentrated sulfuric acid. In either case the oil is treated finally with an active clay to remove trace amounts of residual acids and resins (heterocyclics).

Small amounts of heterocyclics such as substituted benzanthropenes quinolines and indoles may remain in the finished oil. The sulfur containing compounds serve the useful purpose of acting as natural antioxidants. The nitrogen compounds may be harmful in certain applications because of their propensity to form deposits on hot surfaces and are generally reduced to low concentrations.

The table lists typical specification data for lubricants in several applications. It will be noted that viscosity is a determining factor in lubricant selection. Machines are generally designed to operate on the lowest practicable viscosity since the lighter fluids give lower friction and better heat transfer rates. However, if loads or temperatures are high

Viscosity of oils for various applications

Application	Viscosity centistokes at 50°C (122°F)	Primary function
Engines		
SAE 10W	60-90	Lubricating piston rings, cylinder walls, valves, bearings, cooling pistons, preventing post-run metal stresses
SAE 0	90-180	
SAE 30	180-80	
SAE 40	80-450	
SAE 50	450-800	
Gear oils		Lubricating internal combustion engines, hypoid gears, worm gears, cooling gear cases, samplings
SAE 80	100-400	
SAE 90	400-1000	
SAE 140	1000-III	
Air conditioning oils	0-700	
Truck converter fluid	80-140	Lubricate transmission, power
Hydraulic brake fluid	35	
Refrigerator oil	30-60	Lubricate compressor pump
Steam turbine oil	55-300	Lubricate reduction gear cooling
Steam cylinder oil	1500-3300	Lubricate in presence of steam at high temperatures

more viscous and less volatile lubricants are required. Change of viscosity with temperature is often of considerable practical importance and it is customary to express this in terms of viscosity index, an arbitrarily chosen scale on which an oil from a Pennsylvania crude high in saturate and monoaromatic content is assigned a value of 100 and those containing a relatively large amount of cyclohydrocarbons both paraffinic and aromatic (from naphthenic crudes) will be in the 0-50 viscosity index range. As already described the refiner can produce oils of high viscosity index from naphthenic stocks but yields may be low.

**Multigrade oils** In order to standardize nomenclature for oils of differing viscosity the Society of Automotive Engineers (SAE) has established viscosity ranges for the various SAE designations (see table). By the use of relatively large amounts of additives for improving viscosity index it is possible to formulate one oil which will fall within the range of more than one SAE viscosity grade the so called multigrade oil illustrated by Fig. 1. Since all viscosity index improvers also increase viscosity it is necessary to use a base oil of low viscosity to formulate such oils. Since the viscosity increasing effect of the additive decreases with increase in shear rate an artificially thickened oil of this type behaves as a light oil in engine parts under high shear and thereby friction is low but acts as a heavier oil in low shear region or at higher temperatures. However, volatility and ability to protect high shear parts from rubbing set limits to the use of light oils in the formulations.

**Additives for lubricating oils** It is often desirable to add various chemical lubricating oil to improve their physical properties or to obtain some needed improvement in performance.

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**Structure of greases** The gells g age t m m  
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h a g l n g h s f l 100  $\mu$  and d a m e t e r s 20-200  
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l i h e l d b y c a p i l l a r y f c s F a g i e n c o n c e n  
t a t n f a p t h e l g e t h e l n g h t o d a m e t e r  
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g e H w e r n o t a l l a p f r m e h s t a l l n e  
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e d e e t h a t l m i n m o a p m o l u l e s f m  
e t w o r k k t t h t f m e d b y p l y m e m l c u l e  
N s o p t h c k n e r s a e p r e e n t a m l l s o m t  
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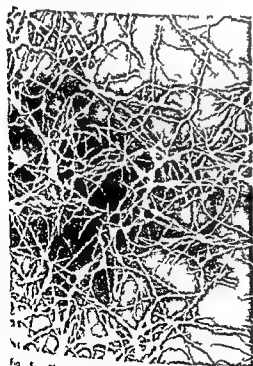


Fig. 5. Elect m g ph of g t t  
0,000 (1) Soap-th k ed g (b) Dye-th k d  
grease.

upon to keep engine parts (oil screens, ring grooves) clean and this is accomplished by the use of so-called detergent oils. Performance is illustrated in Fig 3.

The most commonly used dispersants are alkaline earth salts. Of these the most successful have been the salts of petroleum sulfonic acids, phenates, alciylates, thiophosphates, and oxidized olefin phosphorus pentasulfide reaction products. The materials owe their effectiveness partly to their surface activity which ensures that foreign particles are kept in suspension in the lubricating oil and partly to their alkalinity which enables them to neutralize combustion acids that would otherwise catalyze the formation of lacquers.

Polymeric additives have been introduced for dispersancy. They are copolymers of a long chain methacrylate for example lauryl methacrylate and a nitrogen containing olefin such as vinyl pyrrolidone. These nonash dispersants are superior to the metal containing additives for low temperature operation and can be used very effectively in motor oils. Because they are less alkaline than metallic additives the polymeric additives are less effective in diesel engines where fuel often lead to combustion products which are much more acid than those from gasoline.

**Boundary lubricants.** Boundary conditions are encountered in many metal forming processes in which the pressures required to deform the metal are too high to allow an oil film to form. In such applications fatty oils such as palm oil or lubricants containing fatty materials are employed to reduce the friction and wear. The fatty acids react with the metal surface to form a tenacious soap film which provides effective lubrication up to temperatures approaching the melting point of the soap usually about 120°C. See MACHINABILITY (METALS).

**Synthetic oils.** During World War II synthetic lubricants were extensively employed by Germany as substitutes for mineral lubricants which were in short supply. Some of these such as the ester oils were in fact superior to mineral lubricants in some

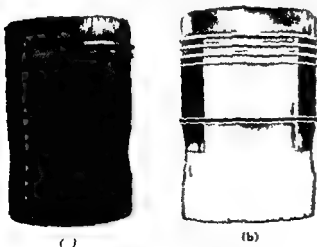


Fig 3 The effect of dispersants on cleanliness. (a) Ordinary oil. (b) Same oil containing dispersant additive.

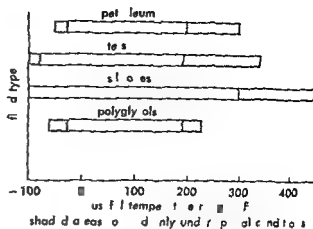


Fig 4 Useful temperature range of synthetic oils.

applications. Since the war the use of synthetics for special applications where their performance justifies the higher cost has steadily increased. Their main advantage is that they have a greater operating range than a mineral oil (Fig 4). Esters such as 2-ethylhexyl sebacate containing oxidation inhibitors and sometimes mild extreme pressure additives are used as lubricants for aircraft jet engines. Silicone, although ideal with regard to thermal stability and viscosity characteristics, are poor lubricants for steel on steel and this has restricted their use although they are invaluable in some applications. Another class of widely used synthetic oils are the polyglycols such as polypropylene and ethylene oxides. The polymers are available in a wide molecular weight range and they vary considerably in solubility in water and hydrocarbons. Thus water-base lubricants may be formulated which are employed when a fire hazard exists.

**Solid lubricants.** The most useful solid lubricants are those with a layer structure in which the molecular platelets will readily slide over each other. Graphite, molybdenum disulfide, talc, and boron nitride possess this property.

The principal difficulty encountered with the use of solid lubricants is that of maintaining an adequate lubricant layer between the sliding metal surfaces. If the solid lubricant is applied as a suspension in a fluid there is a tendency for the particles to settle out and they may not reach the region where they are required. If they are applied as a thick paste to overcome the tendency to settle out it is frequently difficult to force the paste through the narrow clearances between the sliding surface. A third method is to pretreat the surface with a relatively thick film of solid lubricant suspended in a resin and bake it in. Difficulties may then arise through progressively increasing clearances as the film wears and of course there is no method for its continuous renewal. Materials such as graphite and molybdenum disulfide oxidize quite rapidly in air at 400°C. Unless air can be excluded therefore alternative solid lubricants with better properties are required at temperatures greatly in excess of this.

A unique type of solid lubricant is provided by the plastic polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE). At



Silica particles are round and some clay particles are plates. Forces of interaction between silica particles and oil are easily destroyed by water so it is necessary to waterproof the primary particles by special treatments. Electron micrographs of various types of greases are shown in Fig. 5.

**Mechanical properties of greases** When the applied stress exceeds the yield stress the grease flows and the viscosity falls rapidly with further increase of stress until it reaches a value only a little higher than that of the base oil. This fall in viscosity is largely reversible since it is caused by the rupture of network junctions which following the release of stress can reform. However continued vigorous shearing usually results in the rupture of fibers and permanent softening of the grease. Here certain greases such as those derived from lithium salts of hydroxy acids are superior to other types although the manner of grease preparation exercises considerable influence.

In a major grease application for example ball and roller bearings shearing between the races and rolling elements is extremely severe. The reason why a good bearing grease does not soften and run out lies in the fact that only a very small fraction of the grease put in the bearing is actually subjected to shearing. As soon as a freshly packed bearing is set in motion most of the grease is redistributed to places where it can remain static in the cover plate recesses and attached to the bore of the cage between the balls or roller. The small amount of grease remaining on the working surfaces of the bearing is quickly broken down to a soft oily material which lubricates these parts and because it has only a low viscosity it develops very little friction.

A number of methods exist for the measurement of yield stress and viscosity at various temperatures. One of the oldest of grease tests still universally used is a consistency (hardness) test in which the depth of penetration of a cone of standard weight and dimensions is determined. However, few of the many tests used are helpful in predicting the performance of a grease. Consequently, in development work, recourse is made to actual performance data and to the use of rigs that simulate field conditions. See BEARING ANTI-FRICTION GEL.

PETROLEUM PROCESSING [RCL]

*Bibliography* A A Bondi *Physical Chemistry of Lubricating Oils* 1951 C J Boner *Manufacture and Application of Lubricating Greases* 1955 C W Georgi *Motor Oils and Engine Lubrication* 1950 F D Rossini and B J Marx *Composition of Petroleum Advances in Chem* vol 5 1951 H A Van Westen and K Van Nes *Aspects of the Constitution of Mineral Oils* 1951 H H Zwidema *Performance of Lubricating Oils* 1952

### Lubrication engine

Continuous supply of a viscous film between moving surfaces in an engine during its operation. Relative motion between unlubricated surfaces of engine

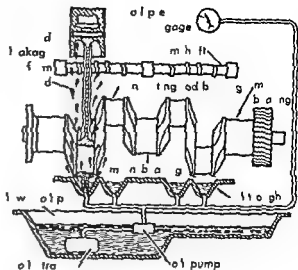


Fig 1 Splash lubrication (E F Obert *Internal Combustion Engines* 2d ed International Textbook Co 1950)

parts would result in excessive wear overheating and seizure with destruction of the contacting surfaces. The energy loss associated with the wear and overheating would be evident in reduced engine power and efficiency. The purpose of lubrication is to minimize the effects by interposing a viscous fluid called the lubricant between the parts. Hydrodynamic forces are produced in the lubricant to keep the surfaces separated even though heavy loads are tending to bring them into contact. The thickness of the separating film for a given part geometry depends upon the relative velocity of the two surfaces and the absolute viscosity of the lubricant and the load per unit of surface area.

Lubricant Engines are generally lubricated with petroleum base oils containing chemical additives to improve their natural properties. Refining methods and composition may be varied to suit special engine design operating conditions. Perhaps the most important oil property is the absolute viscosity which is a measure of the force required to move one layer of the oil film over another. With low viscosity a protecting oil film between the parts is not formed. With high viscosity too much power is required to shear the oil film. In addition the flow of oil through the engine is retarded.

The viscosity of oil tends to decrease as its temperature is raised. It is therefore difficult to maintain the proper viscosity as the engine warms up or as other operating conditions change. Viscosity index is a number which indicates the resistance of an oil to changes in viscosity with temperature. The smaller the change in viscosity with temperature the higher is the viscosity index. In the oil

**Lubrication system** The function of the lubrication system is to supply clean oil cool to the proper viscosity to critical points in the engine where the motion of the parts produces hydrodynamic oil films to separate and support the rubbing surfaces. In all but the most primitive lubrication systems the oil which has been



...dried lumber can be dried in kiln to the desired moisture content more rapidly than by the example in kilns in green timber. The lumber can be dried to the moisture content (Fig 3) in the firewood lumber kiln did not let education with and used hot blast of gas better utility. The hard lumber is only dried to awnills and hipped. The same use of the difficulty of rapid drying method had and because the firewood lumber is a firm turfa use, prefer dry the lumber that they prefer from our sources will be of firm moisture content when used. Rough dry soft lumber is dried in planing mill usually selected the mills to exact dimensions or drying or ceiling and floor patterns. Finally it is graded and sold.

Grading Preparation is a useful classification of lumber graded according to the prescribed by manufacturer's scale. All American lumber grading rules in the perfect of American Lumber Standards developed by the U.S.D.P. and the Commerce. The rules are slightly varying the lumber products, such as the yellow pine, all yard and not in lumber, interchangeable. The lumber grading rules, which have been the introduction of the lumber reformation, the types of easy lumber that used in general construction of the frame and mill structures. Another structural lumber is the hay and tile trunks, which are usually imported. The third is the yellow pine.



Fig 5. A view of the sawmill facility.

Lumber this class is usually cut before ultimate use. Yard and tract sawlumber, graded for use of the particular whole because each of standard width, thickness and length. Grades are based on the lumber and extent of knots, splits, decay and mill structural defects. Moisture content and dimensional specification are also considered. When lumber is used in structures, which have high importance in the density of the grain, its straightness and knot combination that would impair strength, are all considered. Nearly all hardwood lumber and some softwood graded on the factory and have been used such lumber is used by furniture and other factories where it is used up to learn of defects. Hence hardwood and softwood hop lumber is graded from the perspective of the surface, whereas yard and structural lumber is graded on the basis of the face.

The purpose of the grading is to roughly grade a defective graded lumber, which is specifically grade marked by official grading associations and trade marked by nationally known manufacturers. Lumber for structural quality is selected according to grading rules, that rebates and engineering design to create a wood safely, they are the metals of many.

Laminated wood fabricating wood in panel beam, that is by gluing smaller pieces of lumber together, called laminating (or Plywood). The manufacturing of large trees in which is the timber, which is cut into multiple laminations, which have been dried into the United States in the 1930s. Laminating is a process of prefabricating the lumber, that has the strength and properties of the (the Ancient Tuss). In 1954, the lumber industry produced 1,100,000 board feet of plywood, which is 90% was used in buildings and the rest in the construction of the wood for laminating the West and Eastern Pacific, the yellow pine, the white pine, the Douglas fir, the oak, the redwood, the hemlock, the maple, the laminated wood can readily be impregnated with preservatives and retard the rotting. The following is a list of the (Fig 4-5) See FORESTRY WOOD FISHING WOOD PHYSICS WOOD REFRATION [A.F.W.] B.B.G. phy C.B. and J.S. Beth L.L. 1958

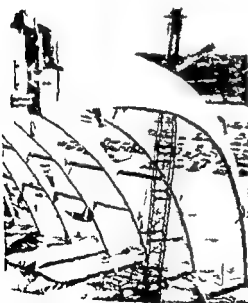


Fig 4. Glued laminated the process. The log is cut into 10,000 pieces, which are then dried and glued together to form a curved structure. The process is used for the construction of bridges and other large structures.

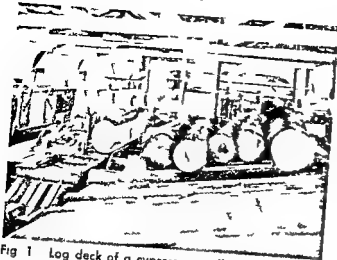


Fig 1 Log deck of a cypress sawmill in Florida show log conveyor on right carriage with log being sawed at left and at rear the boards showing the sawyer's out of view (Photograph by A Lesche and S S Rope Co)

kind is most readily kept in good cutting condition. However they are the most wasteful because their kerf or cutting thickness often is  $\frac{1}{4}$  in which means that for every four boards 1 in thick that are cut another possible one is lost in the form of sawdust.

Logs enter a mill on a conveyor chain and are stored on a log deck. They then are placed on a carriage where they are positioned and moved against the saw. The carriage is powered by a cable and drum or by a large steam piston. As boards are sawed off the log is repositioned for the next cut by a setter who rides the carriage. The sawyer standing by the saw operates the carriage, the log turning mechanism, and the device that moves logs from the deck to the carriage (Fig 1). Some newer carriages have set works that the sawyer operates by remote control. All of the operations are quickly performed and there is little unproductive time with skillful sawyers. Logs are turned as sawing progresses to obtain the maximum amount of the better grades of lumber. As the boards are sawed they are conveyed to the edger if they are to be ripped (made narrower) or they move directly to the trimmer where they are cut to the correct length.

From the trimmer the boards go to the sorting table where they are separated by grade, size, and species. At some mills the boards are dipped in an anti-septic solution to prevent fungus staining while drying. Many of the larger mills use resins to speed production. With them thick cants (large size dimension timbers) are cut on the head saw and then go to a saw gang or saw to a band resaw that cuts them to final thicknesses. Wood is then needed for fuel in hogged (mechanically chipped) and sent to the fuel house. The large wood requirements of the pulp and paper industry have created a market for sawmill waste in the form of chips (see PAPER AND PAPER PRODUCTS, WOOD FIBER PRODUCTS). Much wood formerly burned or used uneconomically is now converted

into pulp chips and old bark is not acceptable for pulping (see BARK). Therefore at mills that convert their waste to pulp chips logs are debarked before being sawed. There are several types of mechanical and hydraulic debarking machines. Sawmills range in size from small portable mills cutting 6000-8000 board ft/day to large ones with two or more headsaws and resaws cutting several hundred thousand board ft/day. At portable mills logs are skidded directly to the log deck.

**Lumber seasoning.** Lumber is not fully processed for use until it has been dried to a moisture content conforming to that of the place it will be used. Otherwise it will shrink or swell and may decay. Lumber is air dried in stacks in a yard where air can circulate through it (Fig 2). When air dried it contains about 18% moisture in terms of its oven dry weight. Air drying requires from 3 weeks to a year or more depending on the kind of wood, its thickness, and the weather. For faster drying and to attain lower moisture contents than are possible by air drying, dry kilns are used. The chambers in which stacked lumber is placed, air circulation is forced, and temperature and humidity

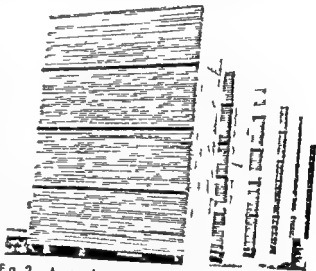


Fig 2 Air-drying pine lumber yard in North Carolina (Photograph by Woodard Walker Lumber Co)



Fig 3 A battery of dry kilns at a southern pine mill. To show glimbs stacks of timber ready for planing the kiln (Photograph by K by L M C p)

[illegible]

## Lumen

The unit of luminous flux. It is defined as the luminous flux emitted within a unit solid angle (1 steradian) by a point source having a uniform intensity of 1 candle. It follows therefore that a light source having an intensity of 1 candle in every direction will be emitting a total luminous flux of  $4\pi$  lumens.

The lumen is also equal to the luminous flux received on a unit surface all points of which are at a unit distance from a point source having a uniform intensity of 1 candle.

The output of light sources is given in lumen. See CANDLE LUMINOUS FLUX [R C P]

## Lumen hour

The unit of quantity of light. It is the quantity of light (luminous flux) radiated or received for a period of 1 hour by a flux of 1 lumen. Similarly other units that can be used to measure the quantity of light are the lumen second or the million lumen hour.

The symbol of the lumen hour is  $Q$ . The equation is

$$Q = \int F dt$$

where  $t$  is time in hours and  $F$  is the luminous flux measured in lumens. See LUMEN LUMINOUS ENERGY PHOTOMETRY [R C P]

## Luminaire

An electric lighting fixture, wall bracket, portable lamp, or other complete lighting unit designed to contain one or more electric lighting sources and associated reflectors, refractors, housings, and such support for these items as is necessary.

Luminaires for general lighting are classified by the International Commission on Illumination in accordance with the percentages of total luminaire output emitted above and below the horizontal into direct or indirect types with intermediate classifications of semi-direct, semi-indirect, and general diffuse or direct-indirect.

Luminaires for floodlighting or for street or highway lighting are classified according to beam spread or according to candle power distribution patterns for the specific applications. See ILLUMINATION [W B B]

## Luminance

The luminous intensity of any surface in a given direction per unit of projected area of the surface viewed from that direction. The International Commission on Illumination defines it as the quotient of the luminous intensity in the given direction of an infinitesimal element of the surface containing the point under consideration by the orthogonally projected area of the element on a plane perpendicular to the given direction. Simply it is the luminous intensity per unit area. Luminance is also called photometric brightness.

Since the candle is the unit of luminous intensity, the luminance or photometric brightness of a sur-

face may be expressed in candles/cm<sup>2</sup>, candles/in.<sup>2</sup>, and so forth.

Mathematically, luminance  $B$  may be found from

$$B = dI / (dA \cos \theta)$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between the line of sight and the normal to the surface area  $A$  considered and  $I$  is the luminous intensity. See LUMEN LUMINOUS INTENSITY.

The tilb is a unit of luminance (photometric brightness) equal to 1 candle/cm<sup>2</sup>. It is often used in Europe, but the practice in America is to use the term candle/cm<sup>2</sup> in its place.

The apostilb is another unit of luminance sometimes used in Europe. It is equal to the luminance of a perfectly diffusing surface emitting or diffusing light at the rate of 1 lumen/m<sup>2</sup>. See PHOTOMETRY [R C P]

## Luminescence

Light emission that cannot be attributed merely to the temperature of the emitting body. Various types of luminescence are often distinguished according to the source of the exciting energy. When the light energy emitted results from a chemical reaction, such as in the slow oxidation of phosphorus at ordinary temperatures, the emission is called chemiluminescence. When the luminescent chemical reaction occurs in a living system, such as in the glow of the firefly, the emission is called bioluminescence. In the foregoing two examples part of the energy of a chemical reaction is converted into light. There are also types of luminescence that are initiated by the flow of some form of energy into the body from the outside. According to the source of the exciting energy, the luminescences are designated as cathodoluminescence or electronoluminescence if the energy comes from electron bombardment; radioluminescence or roentgenoluminescence if the energy comes from x-rays; or from  $\gamma$  rays, photoluminescence if the energy comes from ultraviolet, visible, or infrared radiation, and electroluminescence if the energy comes from the application of an electric field. By attaching a suitable prefix to the word luminescence, similar designations may be coined to characterize luminescence excited by other agents. Since a given substance can frequently be made to luminesce by a number of different external exciting agents, and since the atomic and electronic phenomena that cause luminescence are basically the same regardless of the mode of excitation, the subdivision of luminescence phenomena into the foregoing categories is essentially only a matter of convenience, not a fundamental distinction.

**Fluorescence and phosphorescence.** A second basis frequently used for characterizing luminescence is its persistence after the source of exciting energy is removed. Many substances continue to luminesce for extended periods after the exciting energy is shut off. The delayed light emission (afterglow) is generally called phosphorescence; the light emitted during the period of excitation is generally called fluorescence. In an exact sense this

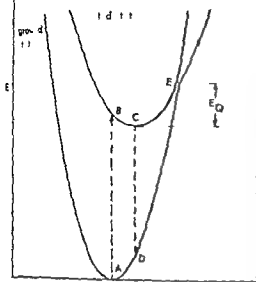


Fig. 2. Coordinates of points A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, V, W, X, Y, Z, AA, AB, AC, AD, AE, AF, AG, AH, AI, AJ, AK, AL, AM, AN, AO, AP, AQ, AR, AS, AT, AU, AV, AW, AX, AY, AZ, BA, BB, BC, BD, BE, BF, BG, BH, BI, BJ, BK, BL, BM, BN, BO, BP, BQ, BR, BS, BT, BU, BV, BW, BX, BY, BZ, CA, CB, CC, CD, CE, CF, CG, CH, CI, CJ, CK, CL, CM, CN, CO, CP, CQ, CR, CS, CT, CU, CV, CW, CX, CY, CZ, DA, DB, DC, DD, DE, DF, DG, DH, DI, DJ, DK, DL, DM, DN, DO, DP, DQ, DR, DS, DT, DU, DV, DW, DX, DY, DZ, EA, EB, EC, ED, EE, EF, EG, EH, EI, EJ, EK, EL, EM, EN, EO, EP, EQ, ER, ES, ET, EU, EV, EW, EX, EY, EZ, FA, FB, FC, FD, FE, FF, FG, FH, FI, FJ, FK, FL, FM, FN, FO, FP, FQ, FR, FS, FT, FU, FV, FW, FX, FY, FZ, GA, GB, GC, GD, GE, GF, GG, GH, GI, GJ, GK, GL, GM, GN, GO, GP, GQ, GR, GS, GT, GU, GV, GW, GX, GY, GZ, HA, HB, HC, HD, HE, HF, HG, HH, HI, HJ, HK, HL, HM, HN, HO, HP, HQ, HR, HS, HT, HU, HV, HW, HX, HY, HZ, IA, IB, IC, ID, IE, IF, IG, IH, II, IJ, IK, IL, IM, IN, IO, IP, IQ, IR, IS, IT, IU, IV, IW, IX, IY, IZ, JA, JB, JC, JD, JE, JF, JG, JH, JI, JJ, JK, JL, JM, JN, JO, JP, JQ, JR, JS, JT, JU, JV, JW, JX, JY, JZ, KA, KB, KC, KD, KE, KF, KG, KH, KI, KJ, KK, KL, KM, KN, KO, KP, KQ, KR, KS, KT, KU, KV, KW, KX, KY, KZ, LA, LB, LC, LD, LE, LF, LG, LH, LI, LJ, LK, LL, LM, LN, LO, LP, LQ, LR, LS, LT, LU, LV, LW, LX, LY, LZ, MA, MB, MC, MD, ME, MF, MG, MH, MI, MJ, MK, ML, MM, MN, MO, MP, MQ, MR, MS, MT, MU, MV, MW, MX, MY, MZ, NA, NB, NC, ND, NE, NF, NG, NH, NI, NJ, NK, NL, NM, NN, NO, NP, NQ, NR, NS, NT, NU, NV, NW, NX, NY, NZ, OA, OB, OC, OD, OE, OF, OG, OH, OI, OJ, OK, OL, OM, ON, OO, OP, OQ, OR, OS, OT, OU, OV, OW, OX, OY, OZ, PA, PB, PC, PD, PE, PF, PG, PH, PI, PJ, PK, PL, PM, PN, PO, PP, PQ, PR, PS, PT, PU, PV, PW, PX, PY, PZ, QA, QB, QC, QD, QE, QF, QG, QH, QI, QJ, QK, QL, QM, QN, QO, QP, QQ, QR, QS, QT, QU, QV, QW, QX, QY, QZ, RA, RB, RC, RD, RE, RF, RG, RH, RI, RJ, RK, RL, RM, RN, RO, RP, RQ, RR, RS, RT, RU, RV, RW, RX, RY, RZ, SA, SB, SC, SD, SE, SF, SG, SH, SI, SJ, SK, SL, SM, SN, SO, SP, SQ, SR, SS, ST, SU, SV, SW, SX, SY, SZ, TA, TB, TC, TD, TE, TF, TG, TH, TI, TJ, TK, TL, TM, TN, TO, TP, TQ, TR, TS, TT, TU, TV, TW, TX, TY, TZ, UA, UB, UC, UD, UE, UF, UG, UH, UI, UJ, UK, UL, UM, UN, UO, UP, UQ, UR, US, UT, UY, UZ, VA, VB, VC, VD, VE, VF, VG, VH, VI, VJ, VK, VL, VM, VN, VO, VP, VQ, VR, VS, VT, VU, VV, VW, VX, VY, VZ, WA, WB, WC, WD, WE, WF, WG, WH, WI, WJ, WK, WL, WM, WN, WO, WP, WQ, WR, WS, WT, WU, WV, WW, WX, WY, WZ, XA, XB, XC, XD, XE, XF, XG, XH, XI, XJ, XK, XL, XM, XN, XO, XP, XQ, XR, XS, XT, XU, XV, XW, XX, XY, XZ, YA, YB, YC, YD, YE, YF, YG, YH, YI, YJ, YK, YL, YM, YN, YO, YP, YQ, YR, YS, YT, YU, YV, YW, YX, YY, YZ, ZA, ZB, ZC, ZD, ZE, ZF, ZG, ZH, ZI, ZJ, ZK, ZL, ZM, ZN, ZO, ZP, ZQ, ZR, ZS, ZT, ZU, ZV, ZW, ZX, ZY, ZZ.

curves the energy of the ground state is shown to vary parabolically as some function of the temperature. The minimum of the curve is at point A. The curve rises to a maximum at point B and then falls to a minimum at point C. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point D and then falls to a minimum at point E. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point F and then falls to a minimum at point G. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point H and then falls to a minimum at point I. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point J and then falls to a minimum at point K. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point L and then falls to a minimum at point M. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point N and then falls to a minimum at point O. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point P and then falls to a minimum at point Q. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point R and then falls to a minimum at point S. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point T and then falls to a minimum at point U. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point V and then falls to a minimum at point W. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point X and then falls to a minimum at point Y. The curve then rises again to a maximum at point Z and then falls to a minimum at point A.

and absorption bands that are observed. An analysis of the data predicts that the widths of the band (usually measured in energy) must be between the point at which the emission or absorption is half its maximum value should vary as the square root of the temperature. For many systems this relationship is valid at temperatures near and above room temperature.

Two other phenomena which can be explained on the basis of the model described in Fig. 2 are temperature changes of luminescence and the variation of the decay time of luminescence with temperature. In Fig. 3 a curve of temperature quenching to the minimum in thallium excited by ultraviolet light is shown. At low temperatures there is very little change in brightness with temperature but at elevated temperatures the luminescence decays rapidly. On the basis of Fig. 2 this interpreted as meaning that the thermal vibration becomes more intense as the temperature rises. At point E from point E the system can fall to the ground state by emitting small amount of heat, or it can fall to point F by emitting a large amount of heat. If point E is at an energy  $E_Q$  above the minimum of the excited state curve it may be shown that the efficiency of luminescence is given by

$$\eta = 1 + C \exp(-E_Q/kT) \quad (1)$$

where  $C$  is a constant and  $k$  is Boltzmann's constant, and  $T$  the temperature in the Kelvin scale. By fitting an expression of this form to the data of Fig. 3 a value of 0.60 electron volts is found for  $E_Q$ .

The temperature quenching tends to occur more strongly at temperatures that would have stayed the excited state for a relatively long period of time. A characteristic decay time of the emission in the temperature region is shown in Fig. 4. The characteristic time of the emission decreases as the temperature increases.

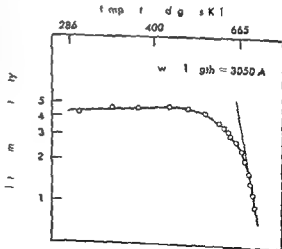


Fig. 3. Variation of the brightness of the luminescence with temperature.

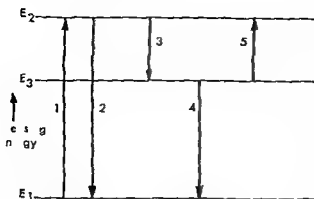


Fig. 1 Schematic representation of energy levels and electronic transitions in an atomic gas.  $E_1$  ground state,  $E_2$  and  $E_3$  excited states. 1 excitation, 2 emission of resonance luminescence, 3 spontaneous transition to lower excited state, 4 luminescence, 5 excitation.  $E_3 \rightarrow E_1$  is allowed (if it is not allowed, 4 does not occur and  $E_3$  is called a metastable state). 5 stimulation of atom back to emitting state.

energy  $\Delta E = E_2 - E_1$ . If this excitation is to be produced by the absorption of light, the energy of the acting light photon  $E_{\text{photon}}$  must equal  $\Delta E$ . The frequency of the exciting light must therefore be  $\nu = E_{\text{photon}}/h = (E_2 - E_1)/h$  and the wavelength of the exciting light must be  $\lambda_{\text{exciting}} = hc/(E_2 - E_1)$  where  $h$  is Planck's constant and  $c$  is the velocity of light. In an isolated atom this extra energy cannot be dissipated and is emitted as radiation when the atom eventually returns to its ground state. The emitted light will therefore again correspond in energy to  $\Delta E$  and will have a wavelength  $\lambda_{\text{emitted}} = \lambda_{\text{exciting}}$ . When  $\lambda_{\text{emitted}} = \lambda_{\text{exciting}}$  the emitted light is sometimes referred to as resonance luminescence or resonance radiation. For further details see ATOMIC STRUCTURE AND SPECTRA.

If a large number of atoms are excited and the excitation then removed, the luminescence intensity will decrease with time exponentially according to the equation  $I = I_0 e^{-t/\tau}$  where  $I$  is the intensity of luminescence at a time  $t$  after removal of the excitation,  $I_0$  is the intensity at  $t = 0$  and  $\tau$  is the average time required by an atom to make a spontaneous luminescent transition. The quantity  $\tau$  is independent of temperature and it is this temperature independence that is emphasized in the more precise definition of fluorescence given earlier. If the transition between the energy levels  $E_1$  and  $E_3$  is highly probable (a so-called permitted or allowed transition),  $\tau$  is very small of the order of  $10^{-8}$  sec for transitions involving visible light.

The excited atom can also lose a certain amount of energy and fall to an energy state  $E'$  of intermediate energy between  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ . This can happen, for example, if the excited atom collides with another atom. If the transition from state  $E'$  to the ground state  $E_1$  can occur with a reasonably high probability, fluorescence will occur starting from this intermediate excited state. In this case the fluorescent wavelength  $\lambda_{\text{emitted}} = hc/(E_3 - E_1)$ .

Since  $(E_3 - E_1)$  is smaller than  $(E_2 - E_1)$ , the fluorescence in this case will be of longer wavelength than the resonance radiation.

If, however, a transition between state  $E'$  and state  $E_1$  is highly improbable (a so-called forbidden transition), state  $E'$  is known as a metastable state. The atom can remain in this state for long periods of time and cannot return to the ground state with the emission of radiation. Luminescence can occur under these circumstances only if the atom regains the energy  $(E - E_1)$  by a collision with another atom or by some other process. Once the atom has been brought back to state  $E'$ , a transition to the ground state is again allowed and luminescence corresponding to  $(E - E_1)$  will be emitted. The existence of metastable states like  $E_3$  explains the delayed emission termed phosphorescence. The atom may spend a considerable amount of time in such a state before some external influence causes it to return to an emitting state such as  $E_2$  in which case the luminescence is correspondingly delayed and appears as an afterglow. In order for the atom to get from  $E_3$  to  $E_2$  it must absorb energy somehow. The rate of return to the emitting state and hence the duration of the afterglow will therefore depend to a very large extent on temperature. At high temperatures the atoms will be excited back to the emitting state rapidly and there will be a bright afterglow of short duration. At lower temperatures the atom will be raised back to the emitting state very slowly and the afterglow will be of long duration but of low intensity. This temperature dependence is the basis for the more precise definition of phosphorescence given earlier.

The principles illustrated in the foregoing discussion may be extended with little modification to the case where the primary absorption or excitation act completely removes an electron from an atom (that is, ionizes the atom) instead of merely raising the atom to an excited state. Under these conditions the electron can be trapped temporarily by another atom and its return to the parent atom can also be delayed by this mechanism.

#### CONFIGURATION COORDINATE CURVE MODEL

Luminescence in atomic gases is adequately described by the concept of atomic spectroscopy but luminescence in molecular gases in liquid and in solids introduce two major new effects which need special explanation. One is that the emission band appears on the long wavelength (low energy) side of the absorption band, the other is that emission and absorption often show as bands hundreds of angstroms wide instead of as the lines found in atomic gases.

Both of these effects may be explained by using the concept of configuration coordinate curves as illustrated in Fig. 2. As in the case of atomic gases, the ground and excited states represent different electronic states of the luminescent center that is, the region containing the atom and/or molecule involved in the luminescent transition. On these



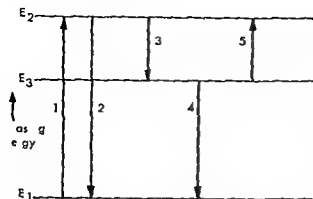


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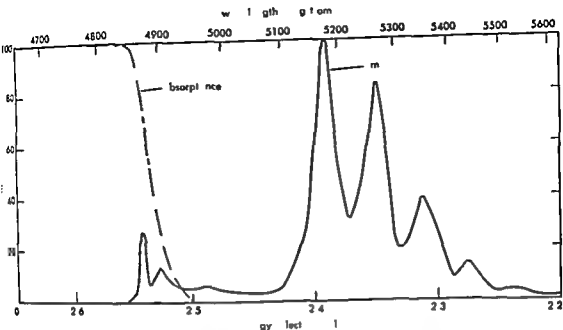
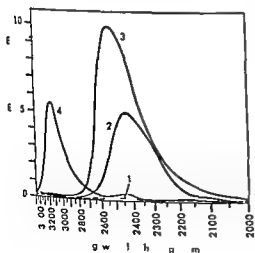


Fig. 6. The absorptivity (100 m) of the film as a function of the thickness of the film at 4 K.

low dielectric constant materials  
while the logarithmic interaction modes for  
loosely bound lectins high dielectric materials

### SENSITIZED LUMINESCENCE

4 p o c e s f o d b l t e r t o c c u i n y o  
t r a n s h e r e n e t y p e o f c i t r a b s o b t h e  
u g h t a n d t f e r i t e r g y t a s e c n d  
t y p e i f c u t h c h t h e n e m t s . T h e t r a n s f  
d o e n t n l m t n o f e l e c t r T h p r o c e s  
u f i e c a l l d u s e d i m i n e s c e , a n d t h e  
p r i n c i p a l p h o p h u s e d i f f r e s c e t i m p a r e



Ex t t p t f m g m f  
bo t (C CO ) ph ph with d ff t  
t rs l t 2 th lt m 3

[illegible]

It is important to know very what data is the  
energy may be transferred from boron to emit  
the E p m ions on felled m ilicat with Pb++ a d  
M added mpu tes is as h w th t if  
M is y as f the 8 nea t latt e  
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Th t i f gy h h treat d theo t  
lly ng q a tum me h d um g a  
m d l f e o a e b twee pled y tem A  
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th t h an ll w d tra t m ce ly  
th u e w ll it a b o b the ex t g l ight p  
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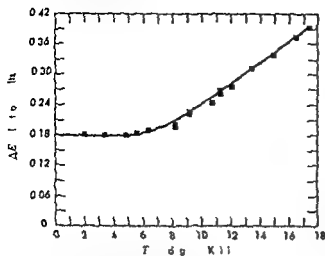


Fig. 4 Variation of the width of the  $F$  center absorption band in potassium chloride at its half maximum points  $\Delta E$  as a function of the square root of the temperature

**Quantum mechanical corrections** Although the configuration coordinate curve model of Fig. 4 is successful in describing many aspects of luminescence in solids it predicts that emission and absorption bands should become narrow lines as the temperature is reduced to absolute zero (0 K). This is not the case as is shown in Fig. 3 which gives the width of the absorption band of the  $F$  center in potassium chloride as a function of the square root of the temperature. (An  $F$  center is the simple type of color center, a color center being a lattice defect which can absorb light. For a detailed discussion of the optical absorption bands associated with  $F$  centers see COLOR CENTERS.) At high temperatures the previously quoted results are valid but at low temperatures the width of the band is constant.

This phenomenon may be explained by treating the configuration coordinate curves quantum mechanically. The curves have the energy versus displacement characteristics of the simple harmonic oscillator. For this case the quantum mechanical analysis shows that there is a series of equally spaced energy levels separated by an energy of  $h\nu$ , where  $h$  is Planck's constant and  $\nu$  is the frequency of vibration. The lowest of the energy levels occurs at a value of  $\frac{1}{2}h\nu$  above the minimum of the classical curve and this energy is called the zero point energy. Its importance is that even at absolute zero the system is not at rest but varies over a range of configuration coordinates characteristic of this lowest vibrational level. Analysis shows that under these conditions the widths of the band  $\Delta E$  vary as

$$\Delta E = A \{ \coth (h/2kT) \}^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

where  $A$  is a constant. A curve of this form is drawn through the experimentally obtained points of Fig. 4 and shows satisfactory agreement.

One other result of the introduction of quantum mechanics is that this simple model predicts that both absorption and emission bands should be

Gaussian in shape at all temperatures that is, they should be of the form

$$I = I_0 \exp [-4\{F - E_0\}^2] \quad (3)$$

where  $I$  is the emission intensity or absorption strength for light of energy  $E$  and  $I_0$  and  $E_0$  refer to corresponding quantities at the maximum of the curve. Figure 5 shows the emission spectrum of thallium activated potassium chloride plotted in such a way that the expression of Eq. (3) would give two straight lines making equal angles with the horizontal. Although there is some disagreement in the wings of the emission spectrum and although the lines are not quite at the same angle, there still is fairly good agreement with the predictions of Eq. (3).

**Materials with high dielectric constants** The use of configuration coordinate curve is justifiable only when the electron taking part in an optical transition is tightly bound to a luminescent center and interacts primarily with its nearest neighbors. This appears to be generally the case in materials with low dielectric constants such as the alkali halides. For high dielectric constant materials the situation is very different. It has been estimated that for boron in silicon the electron is spread over about 500 atoms so that its interaction with the nearest neighbors is small. In the case of the center interacts with the lattice during an optical transition through the creation of many vibrational phonons (sound quanta) at relatively large distances from the center (see PUGHON). An example of this sort is illustrated in Fig. 6 which shows edge emission in cadmium sulfide near the absorption edge of the material. The major peaks correspond to an optical transition with simultaneous emission of 0, 1, 2, and 3 phonons respectively starting with the highest peak. The peaks are equidistant in energy and the spacing is just that to be expected for the creation of phonons.

Although both short and long range interactions of a center with its environment occur in all cases the short range interaction dominates for tightly

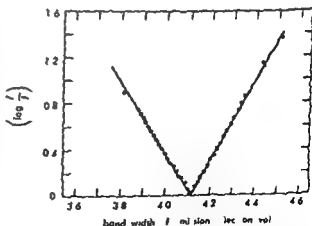


Fig. 5 Emission of thallium-activated potassium chloride at 4 K. In a plot of  $\log I$  vs  $\lambda$  in  $\mu$  the curve would consist of two straight lines making equal angles with the abscissa.



ability of energy transfer  $I$  (defined as the reciprocal of the time required for a transition to occur) varies as

$$P \propto \frac{1}{R^n} \int f F_A dE \quad (4)$$

Here  $R$  is the distance between sensitizer and activator,  $n$  is the index of refraction of the host material which may be liquid or solid,  $f$  is a function describing the emission band of the sensitizer as a function of energy and is normalized so that the area under the curve is unity, and  $F_A$  is a function describing the absorption band of the activator also normalized to unity. The integral of Eq. (4) measures the overlap of these bands and determines the resonance transfer. In typical cases the sensitizer will transfer energy to an activator if the activator occupies any one of the 1000–10 000 nearest available sites around the sensitizer. One type of forbidden transition is a quadrupole transition in this case the number of sites for transfer would be about 100. If the transition in the activator is even more strongly forbidden quantum mechanical exchange effects predominate and the number of available sites for transfer should be reduced to 10 or less. In both of the cases just mentioned the integral measuring the overlap enters in the same way as it does in Eq. (4). From this theoretical treatment it appears that phosphors with  $Mn^{++}$  as the activator probably receive their energy by exchange interactions.

**Concentration quenching** Another phenomenon related to the resonant transfer of energy is that of concentration quenching. If phosphors are prepared with increasing concentration of activator the brightness will first increase but eventually will be quenched at high concentrations. It is believed that at high concentrations the absorbed energy is able to move from one activator to a nearby one by resonant transfer and thus migrate

through the solid or liquid. If there are poisons or quenching sites distributed in the material the migrating energy may reach one and be dissipated without luminescence. Impurity atoms, vacancies, jogs at dislocations, normal lattice ions near dislocations, and even a small fraction of the activator ions themselves when associated in pairs or higher aggregates can act as poisons. As the concentration is increased the speed of migration is increased and the quenching process becomes increasingly important.

#### LUMINESCENCE INVOLVING ELECTRON MOTION

In an important group of luminescent materials the transfer of energy to the luminescent center is brought about by the motion of electrons. Many oxide, sulfide, selenides and tellurides are of this type and of these zinc sulfide has been most widely studied. It is frequently used as the luminescent material in cathode ray tubes and electroluminescent lamps.

Electronic processes in insulating materials are described by a band model such as that illustrated in Fig. 8. The electron energy increases vertically and the horizontal dimension shows position in a crystal. In the shaded area called the filled band or the valence band all the energy levels are filled with electrons. No electron can be accelerated or moved to higher energies within this band since the higher levels are already filled. Thus the material is an insulator. Above the valence band is an energy region called the forbidden band which has no energy levels in it for pure materials. However, imperfections may introduce a local energy level in this region as illustrated by the short line above 3 in Fig. 8. Above the forbidden band is an energy region called the conduction band. Here there are energy levels but in an insulator no electrons. If an electron in the filled band absorbs light of sufficiently high energy it may jump up into the conduction band as shown in 1 of Fig. 8. The empty position left behind in the filled band called a hole has properties which allow it to be described as an electron except that it has a positive charge. Both the electron in the conduction band and the hole in the filled band are free to move and gain energy. As a result current can flow when a voltage is applied externally. The electron and hole can also diffuse far from their origin and can thus transport energy to a distant luminescent center. See HOLES IN SOLIDS.

A simple luminescent transition is illustrated in Fig. 8. Assume that the impurity level (black dot in the forbidden band) is due to a luminescent center and that there is an electron in the level at the beginning of the process. Transition (1) shows the creation of a free electron and hole due to the absorption of light. The hole migrates to the center (2) and the electron in the impurity level falls into the hole (3) thus destroying it. The free electron now migrates toward the center (4) and falls into it (5) giving off luminescence. The cycle is complete and the center once again has an electron. It

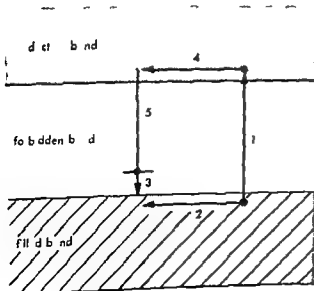


Fig. 8. Energy band model for luminescence processes in zinc sulfide.

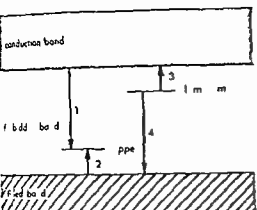


Fig. 9 En-gy-ba-d model film screen composed of a grid with copper coating and a phosphor layer

important to note that in this process both electrons and holes must be a unit in the zinc sulfide thin film. They react with Zn and Tm to form a complex which is necessary also to incorporate into the lattice in which the Zn reacts to Zn. The addition of a small amount of Zn to the ZnS with Cu and Al is shown in Fig. 9. The figure shows how some of the electrons transfer to the grid and some to the phosphor. The grid has two different levels of electron transfer. The first level is the electron transfer to the phosphor which is the main process. The second level is the electron transfer to the grid which is the main process. The figure shows how some of the electrons transfer to the grid and some to the phosphor. The grid has two different levels of electron transfer. The first level is the electron transfer to the phosphor which is the main process. The second level is the electron transfer to the grid which is the main process.

### Luminosity factor

The ratio of luminous flux at a particular wavelength to the corresponding radiant flux at the same wavelength. It is expressed in lm per watt. See LUMEN PHOTOMETRY. The luminosity factor is often defined as the ratio of the luminous flux to the radiant flux at the same wavelength. It is expressed in lm per watt. See LUMEN PHOTOMETRY.

The International Commission on Illumination and the International Commission on Weights and Measures have adopted a standard for the luminosity factor as a standard for the luminosity factor. The standard is a spectral distribution of light.

Mathematically the luminosity factor is defined as follows:

$$\lambda = F / I$$

where  $F$  is the luminous flux,  $I$  is the radiant flux and  $\lambda$  designates the wavelength.

The luminous watt is also the term used to express the efficiency of an electric lamp which would not be confused with luminosity factor. The efficiency is expressed as the ratio of the output in lumen divided by the input in watt. [R.C.P.]

### Luminous efficiency

The ratio of the total luminous flux to the total radiant flux. This is generally termed a lumen per watt radiant flux. Luminous efficiency and luminosity factor are synonymous in the case where energy is radiated at a single wavelength. The theoretical maximum possible luminous efficiency for a source of 555 millimicrons (at which the human eye is most sensitive) is 680 lm per watt. The C.I.E. photopic luminous efficiency curve is the 1931 International Temperature Scale and the new standard candle is the CANDLE LUMEN PHOTOMETRY.

The reciprocal of the luminous efficiency is the radiant energy frequently called the mechanical equivalent of light.

The luminous efficiency of a radiant energy bulb does not be confused with the efficiency of an electric lamp. The term is in terms of lumen/watt but is the ratio of the watt referred to the total radiant flux while in the second case the watts referred to the power input to the lamp. [R.C.P.]

### Luminous energy

The density of the visible energy in the form of electromagnetic wave and is the visible energy commonly taken extending 380-60 millimicrons. It is the length of the luminous energy. It is defined as the energy on it is equal to the time integral of the product of the luminous flux and the LUMEN HOUR PHOTOMETRY. [R.C.P.]

### Luminous flux

The time rate of flow of light. It is radiant flux that forms electromagnetic wave which is the energy emitted by the time rate of flow of radiant energy. It is the energy of its capacity to produce a unit of luminous flux. The visible spectrum is the range of wavelengths from 380 to 60 millimicrons. It is the length of the luminous flux. It is the energy of its capacity to produce a unit of luminous flux. The time rate of luminous flux is the luminous flux. See LUMEN PHOTOMETRY. [R.C.P.]

## Luminous intensity

The solid angular luminous flux density in a given direction from a light source. It may be considered as the luminous flux on a small surface normal to the given direction divided by the solid angle (in steradians) which the surface subtends at the source of light. Since the apex of a solid angle is a point, this concept applies exactly only to a point source. The size of the source however is often extremely small when compared with the distance from which it is observed so in practice the luminous flux coming from such a source may be taken as coming from a point. For accuracy the ratio of the diameter of the light source to the measuring distance should be about 1/10 although in practice ratios as large as 1/5 have been used without exceeding the permissible error.

Mathematically luminous intensity  $I$  is

$$I = dF/d\omega$$

where  $\omega$  is the solid angle through which the flux from the point source is radiated and  $F$  is the luminous flux. See LUMEN PHOTOMETRY [E.C.F.]

## Luminous paint

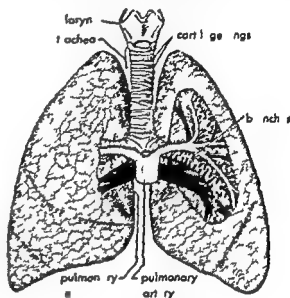
A type of paint that glows in the dark. Luminous paints may be either of the self-luminous type (energized by a radioactive salt) or of the type that requires excitation from an outside energy source such as light. Both types are made by incorporating luminescent material into the paint formulation.

The self-luminous paints glow continuously for several years and are used chiefly for painting the dials of watches or compasses. Zinc sulfide type phosphors are generally used in their preparation, along with traces of some radioactive salt such as radium bromide or mesothorium bromide. Excitation of the phosphor is principally by bombardment of alpha particles (nuclei of helium atoms) from the radioactive salt or from one of its decay products.

The paints that require an outside source for excitation may be classed as either short afterglow or long afterglow paints. The luminescent materials in the short afterglow or fluorescent, paints are generally organic polynuclear hydrocarbons like anthracene or chrycene, or various luminescent dyes such as rhodamine. Long afterglow or phosphorescent, paints generally employ either alkaline earth sulfide type phosphors or zinc sulfide type phosphors. The former type give distinguishable luminescence for periods up to 10 hours while the useful afterglow of the latter type is generally limited to 1 hour or less. These paints are used, for example, under blackout conditions during war time for painted arrows or signs on a wall. It is necessary to have an extremely bright afterglow for a relatively short period of time. [C.C.K. J.H.S.]

## Lung

In man the paired respiratory organs in the chest, separated by the heart and mediastinum. The right lung has three lobes the left lung, two. A bronchus, an artery and a vein enter each lung at the hilum. Each branches again and again to form lung lobules and smaller divisions. The terminal airways or bronchioles expand into small clusters of grape-like air cells or alveoli. The alveolar walls consist of a single layer of epithelium and collectively present a huge surface. A small network of blood capillaries in the wall of the alveoli afford exchange surfaces for the diffusion of gases.



The human lung (From *T. I. Storer and R. L. Usinger, General Zoology* 3d ed. McGraw-Hill 1957)

A serous membrane the pleura covers each lung and is reflected over the adjacent walls as the pleura.

Lungs are simple sacs in those fish that have them and in reptiles and many amphibians only birds and mammals have developed the complex warm-blooded respiratory system similar to that of man. See LUNG DISORDERS [E.C.S.]

## Lung disorders

Diseases of the lung include inflammatory processes due to infectious processes of scarring and destruction which reduce the respiratory surface of the lung, disturbances of pulmonary circulation and tumors. The lung can also be affected secondarily by extension of bronchial diseases (see BRONCHIAL DISORDERS). For a general discussion of the effect of pulmonary diseases on the whole organism see RESPIRATORY SYSTEM DISORDERS.

### INFLAMMATORY DISEASES

These diseases can be acute or run a chronic course; they are usually accompanied by fever.

**Pneumonia.** This is an acute inflammatory disease of the peripheral air spaces of the lung caused

infection from a rous pathogen e microorganism. The type of p e m nia is larg ly dete mned by the infect ag agent, which reaches the pulmonary eoli through the s r ays Pneumonia is a r a d i c a t e, m a y f r m s h a n g a h g h m o r t a l i t y a t e.

**Lobar pneumonia** This is the c m m e s f r m to b i h t i r m p e m o n i a a p p l e d w i t h o u t p e c i a l i t y. It is e s e d b y the gram p o s i t i v e m o c o c c i, *Diplococcus pneum* e Infect n by p m o c o c c i u e s p e u m o a o n l y i f the r e s t a n c e o f the patient a g a i n s t i t i s m a r k e d l y e d b y u c h d i t t o a s c h i l l p f o u n d i n g u e, e e i n j i s m a n y e s u s d e s p a r t i c u l a r l y t h o s e a s s o c i a t e d w i t h f a l u e f t h e p h t h e r t. The i n f e c t i o n s t a r t s i n o n e e a a n d p r o d u c e s t h o u g h u t a n e n t r e l o b e o f the l g. Th f i t d e e o f t h u e r e a t i o n i s c o n f o u n d i n g t h e a l e o l e c a p i l l a r e w i t h f i l l w i t h b l o o d a n e x u d a t e i n p l m a t h e a l e l i t h t h b e q u a d d i t n o f l e u k o c y t e s o w h i t e b l o o d e l l s f l o a. This e x u d a t e i s w h e n f i b r i n u n o c u r a. The n o r m l y p o n g y l u n g i t n o f i r m i f t h e c t e y. The p l e u r a b e c o m

l e d d s o m e e x d a t e w i t h f i l t r i n a n d t h e p l e u r a l c a v i t y. The l e k o c y t e s a e b l e t n a t i t e, a l l o w a n d e t o y o f the p n e m o c o c c i i f t h e y h a b e e p e r v i l y m a d e l e s g g r e s e b y the s t r u f a n t b o d i e s, f o r m e d i n the b o d y r b y t h p y t h s i f n m d e s o r a t i b o l s ( e P n e m o c o c c i s). R e t t u i n t h e p l e m t h r u g h b u f a t n i t h c l t e d x u d t a n d r e m a l f i t h s d b y t h l y m p h t i c a n d b l o o d e l l s c o u n t u d e t r y d t h e p t i t n i t h e l g t u u s u l l y c m p l e t l y e i r e d w i t h t a s s e i d a l a r e i n s t a s, the e x u d a t e i s r e p l a c e d b y o n e c t i u r a n b s c e f r m s.

**Focal pneumonia** B c h p e u m n i s f o c a l p n u m n i s c a s e d b y t r e p t c c e s i p h y l o c o c c i d p e m o c o c c i. *Aleob* l l p m n f e q u e n t l y m p l i t g o i t h d i s e a s e a t y p e i p n m n a h c h f t m l o c b i t n f o b e l h s h a s F e d l d r p n u m n i D e

e m i n a t i n g f r m the m a l l e r b r o n c h i b r a n c h o p n e u m o n i a t e n d s i n d e t r o y t h u e a n d t o f r m a b c e e H e a l g r e u l t i n s c a r r i n g r f m a t i o n o f n e n c a p u l a t e d c a v i t y. The e a s e s o f t e n h a e a h i g h f a t a l i t y. The m o r t a l i t y r a t f o r F r i d l e n d e r p n e u m o n i a w a 80% a n d d e s p i t e a n t i b i o t i c i s s t i l l a l u t 0%.

**Interstitial pneumonia** This d i s e a s e i s c h a r a c t e r i z e d b y e n e t i o n o f the a l e o l a r c a p i l l a r i e s a n d a c u m u l a t i o n o f f l u i d a n d l e u k o c y t e s i n the l o o e a n n e c t e t i s i e f t h e l u m i n i t u a l l y f o u n d i n i n f e c t i o n c a u s e d b y i r u r k t i a l o r g a n i s m s, o r s i m i l a r p a t h o g.

**Pleurisy** Pleur y r p l u r i t i s a n i n f l a m m a t i o n i n the p l e u r a a c c m p a n e d b y f l u i d a c u m u l a t i o n i n the p l e u r a l c a v i t y. I t o c c u r s i n m a n y d i s e a s e s o f the l g p a r t i c u l a r l y i n t u b e r c l o. The f l o o d e s s e l s o f the p l u r a b e m e c o n g e l e d f l u i d n t i n n i n g p r i n a n d w h i t e b l o o d c e l l s e c a p s i r m the c a p i l l a r i e s a d a u m l e s f i r t i the a n n e c t i e t s u e F m t h e r e i t p a e t h r u g h the l i n i n g

l l s o f the p l e r a i n t h e p l a l e w h e r e i t c e m u l a r c h i l d s i n the p a c e b e t w e e n the d i a p h r a g m a n d t h e c h e t w a l l. F b r i n d p o t e d n the p l u r a l s u r f a c e. The p l e r l e f f u s i o n c a n b e r m e d i t h a s t h r a p e u t i c m e r e r i f d i g n t i c p o s e b y m i n t i n g a e e d l e t h r g h the b e t w a l l E m i n u n i f the f l u i d r e a l s p l l b a c t e r i r u m l l p i n t i n g t o the t a l g v i t h e p l u r i t i t h i n f l a m m a t i o n

the f l i d i r e b o r b e d. The f i b r i n e r e d u r l e s f l u n g a d h e a t w a l l t i c k t g t h e r n e c t i e t u e a d b l o o d l g r w t h r u g h t h d h i a d b l t r a t the p l u r l p c e A m e f f i c a b e c m e p r u l n t i n w h i h c a e a t h i k p l e o f f i b r u t u e f r m b o u t i t. S u c h a n c a p u l a t e d m e m b r a n e i s c a l l e d m e m p y e m a.

**Pulmonary tuberculosis** This i s a i n f l a m m a t o r y d i s e a s e o f t h l g d u e t i n f e c t i o n b y t h t u b e c l e b a c i l l. *M y b t m s t b r u l s* a g r a m p o t i a d i f t r o d. The p a t h w a y f r i n f e c t i o n i s t h r u g h the a i r w a y s. The p r i m a r y s i t e f t t l l i s i m t c the l u g. w h e e a l o c l z d n f l a m m a t o r y n o d l e f s p e c i f i c t r u c t u r i t t h e l e f u n d. Th i n f e c t i o n t r a v e l s t h r u g h the l y m p h s i s a n d r c h e the r e g i o n a l i m p h n d e w h i c h b e m e l l n. This s o c a l l e d p m m p l x f i t b e l n o f t e b e m b x ( F g 2) I m m u n i t y a g a n t t h t b e r l e b l l d e v l p s g r d l l y n m t p e s n s H e a l g f t h e p r i m a r y l e m s l e a e m l l i s h e d a r. The l i n g s a g a i n b e f f e c t e d b y e c d a t h c u l n t h d e m a n t d m l r v f m w i t h a d r e d f m a l t t b e r l e r n the l a l d a o s f r m i n w h i c h t u e i p r o g e l d i e d s o t h a t a t u b e r c l o u a t y u l t s S T u b e r c u l o s i s.

**Scarring and destruction** Th n r m l s p n g e l l p a t t e f t h l u n g c n b e i t r e d b y e n l r g e m e n t a i p l m a r y m p h y m a b y c l l a p e f t h r p c e a n t e l e t a t. E t n i e r n g f m h r t t n d t t h p u l m o

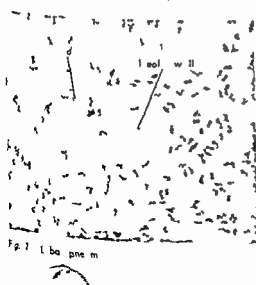


Fig 1 Lobar pneumonia

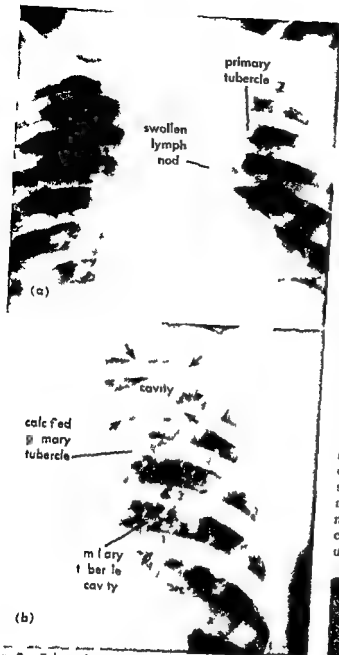


Fig 2 Tuberculosis (a) Primary (b) Progressive

nary structures by formation of strands and foci of connective tissue fibrosis.

**Emphysema** This condition designates two entirely different diseases. In interstitial emphysema air bubbles are found in tissue chiefly in loose connective tissue where the air can spread easily. It is frequently located in the interstices of the lung and mediastinum having diffused from ruptured alveoli of the lung. Pulmonary emphysema is a state of abnormal distension of the peripheral air spaces of the lung. The walls of distended alveoli are thinned finally leaving large spaces consisting of coalescent adjacent groups of alveoli which have lost their septa (Fig 3). These blebs can reach several centimeters in diameter and are then called bullae resulting in bullous emphysema. This is due to air trapping in peripheral parts of the airways when air enters the air spaces on inspiration but is prevented from being expelled during expiration by a valve-like mechanism in the small air bronchi. In diffuse pulmonary

emphysema a large number of slightly distended air spaces is encountered throughout the lung. This can occur when a part of the lung has either undergone atelectasis or has been removed surgically. The minor form is quite common in older individuals. Emphysema patients suffer from severe shortness of breath since many alveolar capillaries have been destroyed with the alveolar walls. The respiratory surface of the lung is significantly reduced and the blood is incompletely oxygenated resulting in cyanosis.

**Atelectasis** In the adult lung this condition is the collapse of the air spaces through obstruction of a bronchus by tumors, foreign bodies, or other conditions. The retained air is absorbed by the blood. Compression of the lung from outside by tumors also leads to atelectasis (Fig 4).

In congenital atelectasis expansion of the lung is partly or completely prevented at birth for various reasons and the air spaces cannot become filled with air. Complete congenital atelectasis is fatal and accounts for the death of many newborn children.

**Pneumoconiosis** This is a general term for a group of diseases of the lung induced by various kinds of dust which results in focal scarring. They mostly represent occupational diseases since the exposure to the particular dust has to be extensive and of long duration. The most important agent is silica which is inhaled by miners, stone masons, metal grinders, sand blasters, and others and which causes silicosis. Most of the inhaled dust is coughed up, however, the particles which reach the alveoli



Fig 3 Pulmonary emphysema



are taken up by phagocytes and destroyed. The tissue reacts by forming a capsule around the irritating foreign body. Since the reaction does the same as a small firm nodule forms, it has been scattered through the lung. By lesions of the endovascular large arteries, the blood becomes fibrotic and finally reduced to a balling pattern. Finally a direct gain in heart failure. The latter is frequently associated with atherosclerosis.

### CIRCULATORY FACTORS

Does the latent pulmonary art  
disease, the fle n; l m nary arc  
lu dh e ontl ng Th re p r a t r y f c  
m m t fleet ly d i s t r b e d f t e n w t h a u d  
den unexpected met S CIRCULATION IN ORDER

[illegible]

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Fig. 4. At 1 t



Fig 5 Primary edema

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**Pulmonary infarct** The result of a destruction of a portion of the lung due to the occlusion of

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Tumors of the lung  
are mainly located in the bronchi and bronchioles.  
The lung is affected by the following diseases:  
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2. Secondary lung cancer  
3. Lung metastases  
4. Lung abscess  
5. Lung emphysema  
6. Lung fibrosis  
7. Lung pneumonia  
8. Lung tuberculosis  
9. Lung sarcoidosis  
10. Lung lymphoma  
11. Lung leukemia  
12. Lung melanoma  
13. Lung sarcoma  
14. Lung hamangioma  
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## Lungfish

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f l f r m d t g f b c k t h D i  
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l k e a d d l y p a t y d e

with or without gills which are also present. The lungfishes are slender elongated fishes. The premaxillae and maxillae are lacking and the teeth are specialized into crushing structures called torii plates.

*Neoceratodus fosteri*, the Australian lungfish, is the heaviest bodied of the three. It has large cycloid scales, sturdy short paired fins and a relatively deep body. It now occurs only in the Burnett and Mary Rivers of Queensland. This fish uses its lung as an aid to breathing in stagnant water. It does not estivate.

*Lepidosiren*, a monospecific genus of South America and *Protopterus* of Central Africa are similar. They have slender bodies, small scales and long very slender paired fins. They live in seasonal swamps and move about over the bottom hunting mollusks during the wet season, breathing primarily if not entirely by means of their gills. During the dry season they form a mucus lined cocoon in the mud in which they estivate. During this period respiration appears to be entirely through the lungs. They escape from the cocoon and resume activity with the return of the wet season. There are three species of *Protopterus*. See DIPYOD.

[JDS]

## Lupine

A cool season legume bearing digitate leaves with five or more straplike leaflets and having terminal racemes of pea shaped blossoms.

Three species, the blue, yellow and white, named for the color of their blossoms, are used in field planting. Lupines need much less potash and lime for growth than the clovers. They do not tolerate extremely low or high temperatures and are attacked by numerous diseases and by several insects.

The older varieties of lupine contained a bitter toxic alkaloid and were used only as cover crops. However, since 1912 European plant breeders have selected low alkaloid varieties of blue and yellow lupines which can also be used for forage.

The production of blue lupine as a cover crop increased greatly in the southeastern United States beginning in 1939. Since 1951, however, lupine culture has declined, partly as a result of an increase of disease and insect injury. See BREEDING (PLANT), COVER CROPS, LEGUME FORAGES [PT].

## Lupus erythematosus

One of the collagen diseases in which connective tissues show a similar form of biochemical and structural alteration. Each of the collagen diseases is a distinct clinical and pathologic entity and such a grouping exists more as a matter of convenience than because of a common etiologic factor. See CONNECTIVE TISSUE.

Collagen diseases display three local forms of degeneration/inflammation, namely fibrinoid, mucoid and hyaline degeneration. Each has its own histologic appearance and may occasionally be seen in other diseases. The causes are poorly understood but hypersensitivity and nucleoprotein derangement appear to be involved. See HYPERSENSITIVITY, NUCLEOPROTEIN.

Lupus erythematosus is an acute or subacute febrile disease that may produce widespread damage to the connective tissue components of many organs and tissues. It occurs predominately in young women but males appear to be increasingly affected, perhaps because of development of better diagnostic procedures. The blood vessels, heart, kidneys, skin and serous membranes are characteristically involved. One of the most striking findings in more than half the cases is the appearance of a reddish, butterfly shaped rash over the cheeks and nose (see illustration). A blood serum factor is present in lupus which produces almost pathognomonic changes in the blood neutrophils.

There is a significant incidence of involvement of the heart (myocarditis) and also of the lining and valves of the heart (endocarditis). Kidney lesions (nephritis) and lesions of the serous membranes of the heart (pericarditis), lungs (pleuritis) and ab-



(a)



(b)

Lupine (a) Plants (b) A field of lupine in flower



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EARTH ELEMENTS [F H S P]

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### Lychee

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Ha s i Bu m Madagascar We t Ind s Brazil  
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D LES [P D S]

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### Lycopodiales

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Fig 1 Restoration of Carboniferous forest trees on central fern club mosses and equisetum (From E N

Transeau H C Sampson and L H Tiffany Textbook of Botany revised Harper 1953)

cone or strobile or the sporangia may be borne singly on the upper surface of porophylls scattered along the stem. The cones are often elevated on upright branches so that they occur above the leafy shoots. Because the cones resemble a club these plants have been given the erroneous common name club moss. The similar spores (homopores) are grouped in tetrads indicating that reduction division occurs in their formation from the spore mother cells.

**Classification** Of the two genera included in this order *Phylloglossum* is confined to portions of Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand (Fig 2). This genus has only one species of simple structure which may be the living descendant of more highly developed ancestors. The other genus *Lycopodium* has about 180 species and is world wide in distribution. The greatest concentration of spe-

cies is in the tropics and subtropics, but the plants also grow in the arctic region. Many of the species are perennial and inhabit the moist woodland or forest floor, whereas others are epiphytic and grow upon forest trees.

**Structure** In most respects the anatomy of *Lycopodium*, especially that of the roots and leaves, is like that of other vascular (higher) plants. See LEAF (BOTANY), ROOT (BOTANY), STEM (BOTANY). The primitive arrangement of the vascular tissues in the stem is called a protostele (a solid cylinder devoid of pith), which may be modified by the relative position and amounts of xylem and phloem in the mature stem (see PHLOEM, XYLEM). All of the vascular tissue is primary and is produced by a cluster of apical meristematic cells with no indication of cambial or secondary activity (see MERISTEMATICAL). Development and maturation of the xylem is exarch or toward the center. A strand of conducting tissue extends from the stele into each leaf and becomes its vein, but no leaf gap is produced where the strand emerges from the stele. Similarly, each branch and root is connected with the primary stele, but in the case gaps are left in the central cylinder as in true in all vascular plants.

**Alternation of generations** The conspicuous plant with its root, stem, leaves, and sporangia is the sporophyte or spore-producing generation (Fig 3). The sporophyte begins with the zygote (fertilized egg) and ends with the formation of spore. The gametophyte (gamete-producing generation) begins with the spore and ends with the union of the egg and sperm in the formation of the zygote. In *Lycopodium*, sporangia are large and somewhat kidney shaped and are borne singly in

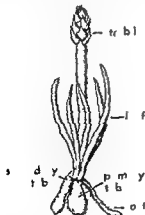


Fig 2 Fertile plant of *Phylloglossum dimorphum* twice natural size (From A W Houghton Plant Morphology McGraw Hill 1953)



*Selaginella* In *Lycopodium* the spores produced by the sporophyte are all alike (homospores) whereas in *Selaginella* the spores are unlike (heterospores) See ISOETALES - LEPIDODENDRALES LYCOPODIALES PLEROMEIALES SELAGINELLALES TRACHIOPHYTA [P A V]

Bibliography See LYCOPSIDA

## Lycopsidea

A subphylum of the plant phylum Tracheophyta having a long fossil history but today restricted to four living genera. The living members commonly called club mosses (a misnomer) are of significance in that the study of their structures and life cycles provides clues to the understanding of the many extinct species. Some of these plants now known only as fossils were the dominant species of the extensive swampy forests of the

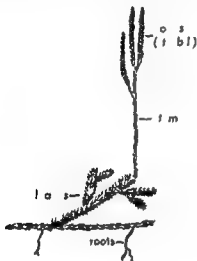


Fig 1 *Lycopodium* or club moss showing prostrate habit with many small leaves upright stem bearing cones or strobili and roots arising from rhizome (From H J Fuller The Plant World revised Holt 1951)



Fig 2 *Phylloglossum* with fleshy leaves at base growing rise to roots quill-like leaves and a stalk with a terminal cone (From H J Fuller and O Tippo C Illinois Botany revised Holt 1954)



Fig 3 *Selaginella* showing a portion of a sporophyte (From G M Smith Cryptogam Botany 12 2d ed McGraw-Hill 1955)

Carboniferous and grew to 30 meters in height (see GEOLOGY LEPIDODENDRALES PALEOBOTANY PLEROMEIALES)

**Classification** The living members of this subphylum are confined to the four genera *Lycopodium* *Phylloglossum* *Selaginella* and *Isoetes*. They are herbaceous plants growing close to the ground or as small epiphytes. All are widely distributed except *Phylloglossum* which is confined to portions of Australia, New Zealand, and Tasmania. The greatest number of species are to be found in the tropical zone, although some species of *Lycopodium* may be found in the arctic regions. Nearly all of the genera grow in moist, shady habitats.

**Structure** The living Lycopsidea are characterized by a dominant, independent (self-sustaining) sporophyte which is differentiated into a root, stem, and leaves. The stems and roots branch dichotomously (fork). The leaves are small, simple, and spirally arranged. See LEAF (BOTANY). Typically they have but one vascular bundle which produces no leaf gap as it departs from the stele of the stem. See STELE STEM (BOTANY). **VASCULAR BUNDLES** The vascular tissue of the stem is usually a protostele consisting of a solid central core of xylem surrounded by a cylinder of phloem, although some lycopods have the center of the stele composed of parenchyma (pith) rather than tracheids or an organization termed a siphonostele (see PARENCHYMA PHLOEM XYLEM). The phloem is surrounded by a pericycle and a well-defined cortex and epidermis (see CORTEX PLANT EPIDERMIS PLANT PERICYCLE). The tracheids found in the vascular tissue are largely calariform. Several species have a cambium which forms secondary



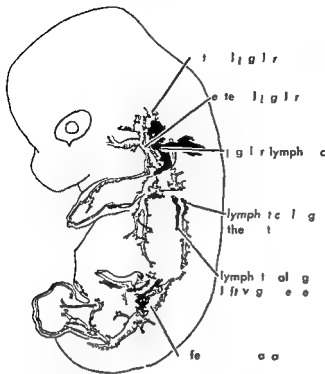


Fig 1 Lymphatic vessels and veins in a 14.5 mm rabbit embryo (R O Geep & Hst logy B l k s ton—M Graw Hill 1954)

A sharp distinction must be made between the processes of the earliest formation of discrete lymph vessels and those leading merely to an extension of once established channel. The former entail actual genesis of endothelium (vasculogenesis) the latter merely representation with Growth by budding and branching of newly established vessels occurs throughout the vascular system whether hemal (arterial and venous) or lymphatic. The controversial aspects mainly concern the earliest beginnings of lymph vessels.

**Theories** There are two conflicting concepts. One is that all lymph channels develop by centrifugal outgrowth from embryonic veins specifically from their endothelial lining. In the neck and loin regions as well as in the posterior abdominal wall and at the root of the intestinal mesentery such outgrowths form saclike expansions (Fig 1). These are respectively the jugular and iliac (lumbar) lymph sacs the future cisterna chyli (pool of chyle near the base of the abdominal aorta) and the mesenteric lymph sac. All the body pervading lymphatics are said to be formed by protruding from the sacs and thus to be derived directly from the lining epithelium of blood vessels. The original points of budding from certain veins (cardinals for instance) either could be retained or lost and secondary evacuation taps for the lymph could be established.

The opposing view holds that the lymphatics arise directly from mesenchymal spaces either adjacent to decadent venules or unassociated with veins. During early embryonic development some rich and temporary venous plexuses become reorganized. Certain venules atrophy and disappear particularly in regions of the developing lymph

atics. The drainage function is taken over by a lymphatic network which temporarily may carry blood cells received either from degenerative venules or from blood islands in the surrounding mesenchyme. The ultimate connection with major stem veins is always secondary. The system arises in a discontinuous manner and independently of the endothelium of veins. The overall direction of its development is centripetal. The isolated and discrete spaces converge and fuse to form continuous lymphatic trunks and network. The main connection of the jugular lymph sacs with the venous system develops early before the more distal lymphatic primordia have interconnected or joined the sacs. This link between two drainage systems lymphatic and venous occurs near the base of the neck (Fig 1) at the jugulosubclavian junction.

**Investigative methods** There are two general methods for the investigation of lymphatic genesis each has serious limitations. They consist either of the study of serial sections of well preserved embryos or of injections of the developing lymphatics (Fig 2). Crucial events in that development take place very early in human embryo for instance when they measure only 10 mm. Obviously it is impossible to detect discontinuous segments of developing lymphatics by the injection method. Serial sections on the other hand can be obtained of uninjected as well as of injected embryos. This method in it turns prevents difficulties in regard to fixation effect shrinkage of the delicate embryonic tissues and interpretive errors in reconstruction. Further progress may depend on newly devised methods.

The late evidence strongly supports the centripetal view of the origin of the lymphatic system. According to this view the very first beginnings are identical with those of the arterial and venous components of the vascular system. All is vasculogenesis appears to occur through the same fundamental transformation of mesenchymal cells into endothelial cells. The lymphatic precursor stage succeeding the development of veins as a rule is distinct, anascent and therefore difficult to recognize. This has caused differing interpretation.

**Embryonic phase** In human embryos of about 1 in (20–30 mm) a connected primitive lymph system is already established. The main lymph channel ascending through the thorax in front of the vertebral column (thoracic duct) has joined the jugular lymph sac. At its distal end it is continuous with the cisterna chyli into which converge the lymphatics from the intestinal tract and those of the lower trunk and limbs. The jugular lymph sacs also receive lymphatic drainage from the developing upper limbs through the primitive ulnar lymphatics. Other lymph trunks develop in the head and neck regions so that the jugular lymph sacs soon receive returning tissue fluids from all body regions. Lymph thereby is returned to the venous system of the blood vascular system.

In early stages the thoracic ducts are paired and symmetrically developed. Some animals retain dual





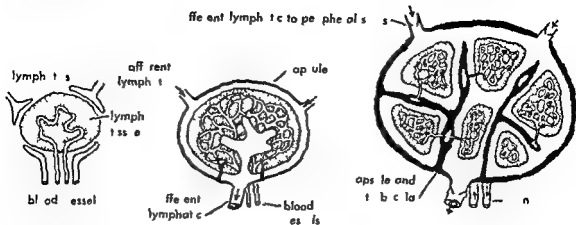


Fig 4 Development of a lymphatic gland (L B Aray and R L Rea Developmental Anatomy 6th ed Saunders 1954)

In the fourth and fifth fetal months the lymphoid cells appear and almost synchronously many precursor stages of future red blood cells appear. This blood forming function is called erythropoiesis. It is temporary in human embryos but fairly conspicuous in the fifth and sixth fetal months. During that time the meshes of the reticular background contain many immature and mature erythrocytes (red pulp). Later the production of lymphoid elements predominates. Gradually a white or lymphoid pulp develops. Lymphocytes are being produced mainly in areas surrounding the specially shaped sheath (arteries with thickened walls). Full development of the white pulp with lymph follicles and germinal centers is protracted until after birth. There are no lymphatic afferents to the spleen although the later developmental features of the spleen resemble those of lymph nodes. Some forms of white blood cells are produced in the spleen throughout life and used up red blood cells are being continuously destroyed in it. [A A Z]

#### COMPARATIVE ANATOMY

**Invertebrates** It is disputable how far down in the animal series lymphoid tissue is found. Some authors speak of lymphocytic cells in annelid worms, in mollusks, and in other invertebrates.

In general the more primitive and the different blood cells resemble more closely the lymphocytes of vertebrates. This is true also of the lower chordates in which so-called lymphocytes of the tunicates are said to differentiate into any of the other cell types of the body. Lymph nodules are described in some species of tunicates in the body wall and in the gut wall.

In the nonchordates it is difficult or impossible to make a distinction between blood vessels and lymphatic vessels. Probably the two systems had a common type of origin.

In *Amphioxus* however, among the lower chordates lymphatic vessels can be identified surrounding the blood vessels and are seen also around the central nervous system in the dorsal fin and in the metapleural folds.

The lymphatics of vertebrates are distributed in somewhat the same manner as are the veins (Fig 5). Thus they are divided into a deep and a superficial set. The deep set develops in relation to the cardinal veins and then makes connection with them and with the superficial set. See LYMPHIC VESSELS.

**Fishes** In fishes the lymphatic system varies in degree of development in different species. In some the veins seem to carry on the function of lymphatic drainage but in a number of species of ganoids, teleosts, and elasmobranchs a well-developed lymphatic system is seen. The lymphatic vessels surround the veins in the elasmobranchs; in other fishes they are not so closely related to the blood vessels. In the elasmobranchs also there may be one or two large trunks which run parallel with the aorta and are comparable to the thoracic duct or ducts of man and other mammals. Pulsating organs called lymph hearts which assist in driving the lymph along the vessels occur in some fishes (Fig 6). The lymph vessels lack valves. Lymph nodes are absent although there are collections of lymphoid tissue chiefly close to mucosal surfaces. Nodules are found in these collections but they lack germinal centers.

The organ of Leydig of the selachian fishes consists of two large accumulations of lymphoid tissue which run longitudinally the whole length of the esophagus and even extend into the stomach. Although the cells of this organ are primarily lymphocytic they apparently serve as stem cells for all the types of white blood corpuscles in the fishes and hence the tissue perhaps should be spoken of as lymphomyeloid, indicating its hematopoietic as well as lymphoid character. See GLAND.

In the sturgeon a mass of lymphoid tissue has been described which occurs near the heart and resembles a lymph node but its homologues are doubtful.

**Amphibia** In the Amphibia the lymphatic system often includes very large subcutaneous sinuses probably to protect against the danger of loss of moisture. Dilatations of the lymphatics or lymph sacs occur frequently. Lymph hearts are common.

Fig. 5. D g m l l t g th ch f lymph t c  
trus d th t t the m mm l  
Y rol w ( ) So th Am c m key (b) M m l  
(lap d) wh h p t l c mm c to  
re t g ( ) Mamm l g e l (d) Ma (po s  
m d kud ys t h w l l m mm l lymph  
ters th t h p s f c b t we the

in various parts of the body and a thoracic duct is present. Accumulations of lymphoid tissue are frequent passengers of the lymph sacs but are not comparable in architecture to the lymph nodes of higher vertebrates. They may however represent an early stage in the development of lymph nodes.

**Reptiles.** Reptiles have well-developed lymphatic systems but lack the peculiar features of amphibians. The nodules of lymph nodes are described as the medullary

Birds 1 the lymphatic system f b rds, lymph  
odes are w ll develop d in some spec e and h  
not been dem nst ted in the s They are defi  
nt typ ent in ducks, both w ld and d m st c n

Fig 6 Ly ph h rt + 1 1 1 1 1 1 G C K ?  
C<sup>p</sup> 1 A my f th V rt b 1 Bl k st n-  
McG Hill

gees and in wns The locati ns re the cervical  
er, others: and lumbar regins

The architecture of lymph nodes of birds is simple than in mammal. In birds they are by different with the walls of lymphatic vessel where in mammals they are in the surrounding tissue. The lymphoid tissue of birds contain light areas in the nodules the so called germinal center where mitosis occur. These centers in bird however usually are more abundant near the large sinus occupy the central parts of the node and surround unorganized mass of lymphoid tissue occupy the periphery. In mammals the lymphoid nodule with their germinal center lie in the peripheral edge. In both birds and mammals the germinal center however not only mitotic figures but also many lymphocytes in process of degeneration and large phagocytic cells which is a fragment of lymphocyte or whole lymphocyte within their cytoplasm.

Mammals Th lymph n des of mammals ary  
 numbe sz form a d truct re n diff nt  
 pec s Ther appa to be ome rath r surp ing  
 d ffe n e n numbe f lymph n de n d ffer nt  
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ment for the mesenteric nodes in some other rodents and in some carnivore. The species include the mole the dolphin the eel and the narwhal whale.

The amount of connective tissue of the lymph node that is the degree of development of the capsule and trabeculae varies in different mammals. It is weakly developed in the pig dog sheep rabbit guinea pig and rat. In man and in the horse the trabeculae of the medullary part are more strongly developed than those of the cortex. Many mammals show a strong development of smooth muscle in the capsule and trabeculae as in the horse sheep cow and dog. The cow has an especially thick capsule and trabeculae.

In some lymph nodes the cortex with its nodules is very sharply set off from the medulla with its more diffuse lymphoid tissue. This is true of the cow. In other animals the nodes seem to vary in this respect in different parts of the body or even in a rather haphazard manner whereas in still others such as the pig there may seem to be almost a reversal of arrangement with the nodular tissue situated centrally and the diffuse tissue peripheral.

**Other lymphoid organs.** These include the tonsils thymus gland and spleen and in certain classes and groups of animals structures which are confined to such groups for instance the bursa of Fabricius in the birds a diverticulum from the lower end of the alimentary canal. See **SPLEEN THYMUS GLAND TONSIL**.

**Tonsils.** The tonsils seem to be represented in the frog and toad by two large fossae palatinae invaginations of epithelium surrounded by dense masses of lymphoid tissue. Smaller structures of simple construction also are present.

In the posterior part of the buccal cavity of *Proteus* and *Salamandra* there are areas in which the epithelium is thickly infiltrated by lymphocytes.

Among the reptiles *Lacerta agilis* shows definite tonsils in the pharynx with elongated lymph nodules occurring along epithelial invaginations and with an apparent lack of basement membrane and a complete intermingling of epithelial and lymphoid tissue near the surface. Tonsils are seen also in the crocodiles.

Birds not only have large aggregations of lymphoid tissue in the pharynx but often also a large esophageal tonsil. The first staining germinal centers are seen for the first time in birds.

A ring of lymphoid tissue known as Waldeyer's ring consisting of palatine pharyngeal and lingual tonsils is present in many mammals as in man but other mammals may lack one or more of its component parts. In the rat and mouse there are no palatine tonsils. In the hare and rabbit pharyngeal tonsils are lacking. The rabbit hare dog cat and sheep apparently lack lingual tonsils.

Tonsils of the horse are peculiar in that they contain structures apparently identical with the Hassall corpuscles of the thymus gland.

**Spleen.** The spleen is an organ of dual nature belonging to both the blood vascular and the lymphatic system. In the lower vertebrates it is actually within the wall of the alimentary canal. In cyclostomes it lies in the submucosa of stomach and intestine. In the lamprey it is within the spiral valve. Among the Dipnoi it is found within the stomach wall but in elasmobranchs and ganoids it is a separate structure attached to the mesentery. In fishes and amphibians it is active as an erythrocytopoietic and lymphocytopoietic organ. Its function of forming lymphocytes is important also in higher vertebrates (including man and other mammals) but its blood cell forming function is lost and replaced by one of destruction of old or worn out red corpuscles and to some degree of blood storage. See **HEMATOPOIESIS**.

The lymphoid tissue of the spleen in higher vertebrates contains many nodules known as Malpighian bodies. These usually contain active germinal centers.

## HISTOLOGY

Lymphoid tissue is a tissue in which the predominant cell type under normal conditions is the lymphocyte. Lymphocytes are associated with reticular fibroblasts which form a delicate framework of fibers which can be demonstrated by their affinity for silver. There usually are cells of other types present also including macrophages (fixed and free) plasma cells and occasional eosinophilic granulocyte.

**Function.** The chief function of the lymphoid tissue is to produce lymphocyte. In efferent lymphatic vessels those leaving the lymph node lymphocytes are considerably more abundant than in afferent lymphatics. Lymphocytes are added to the lymph as it flows through the lymph node. The lymphocyte content of veins coming from the node also is greater than that of arteries going to them. Apparently newly formed lymphocytes also migrate into the capillaries and small veins. A second important function of lymphoid tissue is protection against infection which it carries out by means of its phagocytic and antibody producing activity.

**Cellular composition.** Lymphocytes are of different size small medium and large. The range in size of the three kinds however varies with different classes and even species of animal. The large lymphocyte resembles very closely the stem cell of blood forming tissue the hemocytoblast. In fact lymphoid tissue itself bears a considerable resemblance to hematopoietic tissue and in lower vertebrates it is not always possible to distinguish between the other.

The function of the lymphocyte themself is imperfectly known. The study of comparative histology however seems to throw light on their probable role in higher forms. In many invertebrates the regenerative power is not less active than in higher vertebrate. It has been shown that primitive mesenchymatous and free lymphoid cells often aggregate to form the various organs.

muscles and ectodermally derived completely differentiated small. In some flatworms it has been found that not only do new parts arise from the blastoderm (cell) but the pigments nuclei and the cytoplasm compare with the large lymphocytes but that the relative power of regeneration in different species may be correlated with the relative number of such cells. Thus where they are numerous, as in *Planaria*, regeneration is powerful. When they are not so common as in *Proctotylus*, regeneration is low. In flatworms the cell of the intestine has varied structures as epithelium of the gut, germ cell, and blast.

Although the lymphocytes of mammals do not have the remarkable potentialities many workers have shown that they can develop into various types of cells, including macrophages which are large phagocytic cells of some type of granular but also of the blood red blood cells and fibroblasts, fibrocytes, and cells. The general has been made also that they may metamorphose into phagocytic cells in some locations. This is one of their important functions the highest vertebrate is still recognized as a cell of the plasma.

**Lymph vessels.** The lymph apparatuses the smallest lymph vessels, form a dense network in almost every portion of the body. They appear to be distributed almost entirely of the endothelial layer. They unite to form larger vessels connect the peripheral parts of the body. The blood vessels end in lymphatic capillaries are rarely seen in the lateral position which receive the fatty food from the intestinal lumen and the chylous chyle, blood and milk by the presence of a multitude of minute droplets of fat (Fig. 7).

The large lymphatic vessels there are more cellular, fibrous and also some elastic and smooth

muscle fiber. In vessels with a diameter of more than 0.2 mm the wall is generally composed of three layers which bear the same names as the cells in the blood vessels, namely intima, media and adventitia. In lymph vessels the adventitia is usually the thickest layer and often contains smooth muscle cells as well as collagenous and elastic connective tissue fibers. In the large lymphatic vessels the right lymphatic duct is the thickest and the most more fully developed and contains considerable smooth muscle.

**Lymph nodes.** The lymph nodes are masses of lymphatic tissue with a special type of structure. They are distributed in various ways in the course of the lymphatic stream. The cells entering the node are called afferent lymphatic vessels and the efferent lymphatic vessels.

The texture is usually composed of rather dense lymphoid tissue composed of rounded nodules, made up of small lymphocytes. In the center of the node are lighter staining portions, the germinal centers with macrophages and lymphocytes of medium and large size frequently seen in mitosis.

The medulla of the lymph node consists of narrow channels or sinusoids through which the lymph is flowing toward the efferent vessels. The afferent lymphatic vessels enter the node at the cortex.

The lymph node is surrounded by a capsule consisting of collagenous and elastic connective tissue fibers and often containing some smooth muscle. At the hilum where the blood vessels enter the node and leave and from which the afferent lymphatic vessels emerge the connective tissue of the capsule penetrates well into the node.

PHYSIOLOGY

**Lymph formation.** In any region the fluid which enters lymphatic capillary may be that which is lost from the arterial or the venous and from the blood capillary. It may be fluid reabsorbed from the tissue. There exists a gradient of pressure from the tissue fluid to the lumen of the lymphatic capillary. In edema such a balance is upset about the periphery by the time with which the fluid at the gradient is increased. This pressure gradient is an important factor in the formation of lymph. See FMA.

A fluid which filters out of the capillary into the tissue wall of the blood capillary is normally drawn by the lymphatic. Experimentally this has been shown to be true in the case of the rat.

**Function of the lymphatics.** The function of the lymphatic system is to carry excess fluid and also to turn to the blood stream the proteins which have been filtered from the blood plasma. Lymphatic fluid from lymphatics of the kidney and of the gastrointestinal tract has been shown to contain proteins which have been filtered from the blood plasma system. The efferent lymphatic ducts empty into the venous system.

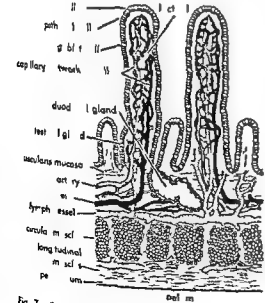


Fig. 7. Cross section of the lymphatic system showing the relationship between the lymphatic system and the blood stream. R. L. U. G. 1957.

and fibrinogen. The filtrate from the blood capillaries consists of water and of sugar and salts in concentrations found within the blood stream plus the proteins in low concentration. The airts and much of the water are reabsorbed by blood vessels whereas the protein together with some water and salt enters the lymphatics. When the normal drainage of protein from the tissue spaces is prevented elephantiasis may result as when the lymphatics are obstructed in filaria. The result is massive edema of a part with dilatation and thickening of the lymphatic capillaries and an overgrowth of connective tissue. See FILARIASIS.

In addition to water ions small molecules and the large molecules of extracellular protein particles such as injected graphite or extravasated red cells also enter the lymphatic capillaries. Such relatively huge structures pass between the cells.

**Composition and properties of lymph.** Basically the composition of lymph closely resembles that of the plasma. Chemical and electrophoretic studies show that lymph contains all of the types of protein found in plasma but in lower concentration. The composition of lymph varies to some extent from one part of the body to another. Thus the lymph from the liver contains more protein than that from the skin.

The ability of lymph to coagulate depends largely on its content of fibrinogen and prothrombin and this varies rather markedly. In dogs the mean

prothrombin level is 76 for leg lymph, 51.2 for thoracic duct lymph and 93.2 for liver lymph. There are no blood platelets in lymph and it is thought that thromboplastin generally considered necessary in clotting is formed at the time of clotting from precursors present in the lymph. Calcium also is needed in clotting and is present in the lymph in slightly lower concentration than in the blood.

The ionic content of lymph does not vary much from that of plasma (Table 1). Chloride and bicarbonate levels are higher in the lymph than in the plasma whereas total base is slightly lower.

The glucose content usually is essentially the same in the lymph as in the blood. Curiously the lymph of the kidney has a lower concentration of glucose. When carbohydrate is fed or when an intravenous injection of glucose is made the concentration of this sugar in the lymph lags behind that in the plasma but eventually catches up when an equilibrium between plasma and lymph is attained. Concentrations of amino acid, creatinine and urea are approximately equal in lymph and plasma but in the kidney the urea of the lymph is slightly higher than that of the plasma. It seems probable that some of the renal lymph comes from fluid reabsorbed from the distal and collecting tubules. See KIDNEY, URINARY SYSTEM.

The lipids consist of neutral fat forming the chylomicrons and of cholesterol and phospholipid the latter two kinds of compounds being associated

**Table 1.** Average values for the concentrations of electrolytes in lymph and plasma

Substance or property	Source of lymph	Subject	Plasma	Lymph	Anesthetic
Sodium meq/liter	Thoracic duct	Man (5)	147	197	
	Cervical duct	Dog	163	157	Nembutal
Potassium meq/liter	Thoracic duct <sup>a</sup>	Man (5)	5.0	6.7	
	Right lymph duct <sup>a</sup>	Dog (5)		5.1	Nembutal
Calcium meq/liter	Thoracic duct <sup>b</sup>	Man (5)	5.0	4.2	
	Thoracic duct	Dog (1)	5	1.6	Amytal
	Cervical duct	Dog (11)	5.8	4.9	Nembutal
Chloride meq/liter	Thoracic duct <sup>b</sup>	Man (5)	106	98	
	Thoracic duct	Dog (1)	110	116	Amytal
	Cervical duct	Dog ( )	116	1	Nembutal
Inorganic phosphorus mg%	Thoracic duct <sup>b</sup>	Man (5)	4.5	4.1	
	Thoracic duct	Dog (1)	4.3	3.6	Amytal
	Cervical duct	Dog (3)	5.6	5.9	Nembutal
Carbon dioxide ml%	Cervical duct	Dog (7)	56.8	58.8	Nembutal
Carbon dioxide tension mm Hg	Cervical duct	Dog (7)	46.1	40.3	Nembutal
pH	Cervical duct	Dog (7)	7.31	7.11	Nembutal

Numbers in parentheses indicate number of subjects studied.

<sup>a</sup> H. R. Bierman et al. The characteristics of thoracic lymph duct in man. *J. Clin. Invest.* 3: 637-649, 1933.  
<sup>b</sup> O. H. Lovery and F. W. Maurer, quoted by C. K. Drinkwater and J. M. Yoffey. *Lymphatics, Lymph and Lymphoid Tissue*. Harvard University Press, 1941.

<sup>c</sup> F. C. Courtice, unpublished data.

R. M. Arnold and L. H. Mendel. Interrelationships between the chemical composition of the blood and the lymph of the dog. *J. Biol. Chem.* 74: 189-191, 1927.

<sup>d</sup> J. W. Heist. On the chemical composition of lymph from subcutaneous vessels in man. *J. Physiol.* 103: 358-1933.

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nervous system. They may also in cases of meningitis or of hemorrhage help to clear the cerebrospinal fluid of cells and of plasma protein.

Cerebrospinal fluid differs from other lymph in its low protein content, low cell content and lower specific gravity (1.004-1.008). It contains no fibrinogen.

The cerebrospinal fluid has at least three functions: (1) it acts as a fluid buffer against shocks and jars of the central nervous system; (2) it serves as a reservoir in regulation of the cranial contents; and (3) it acts as a mechanism for exchange of gases and nutrients in the nervous system. In relation to these functions its properties are particular, but it may be considered as a specialized type of lymph. [WAW.]

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## Lymphocytic choriomeningitis

A viral infection endemic in mice but occasionally transmitted to man in whom it may produce a mild influenzalike disease or an aseptic meningitis. Sometimes encephalitis or even a fatal systemic disease may be produced.

**Diagnosis** of lymphocytic choriomeningitis (LCM) is by isolation of the virus from acute phase spinal fluid or blood or by increases in serum antibodies.

Mice are the usual reservoir of virus; they may harbor it throughout life and transmit it to their offspring. Dust and food contaminated by urine or feces are probable vehicles of transmission to man; however, *Trichinella spiralis* can be infected experimentally and has been suggested as a possible means of transmission from animal to animal or through pigs to man. [JLM.]

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## Lymphogranuloma venereum

A venereal disease caused by a virus of the psittacosis group. The infectious agent has been related to the lymphogranuloma psittacosis group by structure and development forms, staining, growth in the

yolk sac and antigenic components. The disease, also known as climatic bubo, is manifested in constitutional symptoms and acute or chronic tissue change in the inguinal and rectoanal region.

After venereal exposure, painless vesicles develop on the genital organs or anus. The infection may terminate here or it may progress to adenitis of the pelvic lymph nodes accompanied by fever and generalized symptoms, even pneumonitis. In the chronic stage plastic induration of the male genitalia or in the female vaginal and rectal stricture with fistula are typical.

Elementary bodies may be seen in cells from human lesions and they are transferable to the white mouse by intracerebral inoculation. Past or present infection can be detected with complement fixation tests or more commonly by the intradermal Frei test. Subjective clinical and functional improvement has followed treatment with the antibiotic terramycin. In the United States the disease is more prevalent among Negroes than Caucasians. Serum surveys, early diagnosis and treatment, supervision of infected persons and public education are important in prevention. See ANTIBIOTIC ACTIVITY, LYMPHOGRANULOMA PSITTACOSIS GROUP, PSITTACOSIS, SKIN TEST, VIRUS.

[JAFME.]

## Lymphogranuloma psittacosis group

Viruses of psittacosis, ornithosis, lymphogranuloma venereum, certain localized infections of mammals, and inclusion blennorrhoea, measuring 350-500 m $\mu$  in diameter comprise this group that lies along an indistinct line dividing rickettsia from viruses. They stain with formal methylene blue or other basicophilic dyes. All grow well in the embryonated egg and tissue culture. One heat-stable antigen is shared by all members and the heat-labile antigens are specific for individual members. Many produce toxins. The viruses are isolated mainly by inoculation of mice or guinea pigs. The tissue and cellular tropisms vary considerably within the group. They are each susceptible to antimicrobial drugs to a somewhat different degree. See ANTIGEN, CULTURE, EMBRYONATED EGG, CULTURE, TISSUE, RICKETTSIALES, VIRUS.

[JAFME.]

## Lynx

Any of several moderate-sized cats of the genus *Lynx*, family Felidae, characterized by long legs, short tails, tufts of hair on each cheek and tufted pointed ears. They are found in the Northern Hemisphere and Africa. Although the bobcat is also a lynx in the United States, the name is usually applied only to *Lynx canadensis*. The lynx is about 3 ft long with a short black-tipped tail and large feet. It occurs from Alaska across most of the United States, Canada, northern New England, northern Michigan and southward in the mountains into California.

The lynx is a cat of the undomesticated type and seldom has much contact with man. Its principal food is the snowshoe rabbit, or varying hare.





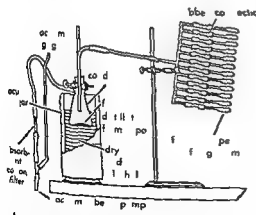
The Lynx, *L. rufus*, ad. L. girth 3 ft. (U. S. M. E. L. P. for Fieldb. & I. N. I. H. S. y. M. G. W. H. 1949)

and the number of lynx likely follow the cycle of the hare. S. BOBCAT CARIVORA Cat [JDB]

### Lyophilization

Drying a material from the frozen state. Water is removed by sublimation from the frozen material and the solid is left as a powder. The process is used in the food industry to preserve nutrients. When the material is dried, it is placed in a vacuum chamber where the water is removed. The process is used for many types of food, including fruits, vegetables, and meats.

Apparatus for lyophilization consists of a chamber where the material is placed, a cooling coil, and a vacuum pump. The material is placed in a container within the chamber. The cooling coil is used to freeze the material. The vacuum pump is used to remove the water vapor during the sublimation process.



Apparatus for lyophilization. (A. J. S. H. F. d. m. 1954)

cant re-acquire by the body (cellular material) is inadequate to fully and carefully maintain the body's dry state. In elaboration of the principle, myriads of the population have been found in the capacity for multiplication by binary fission. The resulting cells are able to form a new organism. The process is used in the food industry to preserve nutrients. When the material is dried, it is placed in a vacuum chamber where the water is removed. The process is used for many types of food, including fruits, vegetables, and meats.

### Lyra

The Lyra constellation is a minor constellation in the northern sky. It is named after the lyre, a musical instrument. The constellation is located in the northern hemisphere and is visible from latitudes between 30°N and 90°N. The constellation is composed of 29 stars, with the brightest being Alpha Lyrae (Vega). The constellation is also known for its deep-sky objects, including the Ring Nebula (M57) and the Helix Nebula (M45).

### Lysin

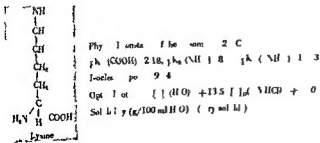
A term used in biology to describe the substance that will destroy a cell. The damage is caused by the action of the enzyme lysozyme, which breaks down the cell wall. The process is used in the food industry to preserve nutrients. When the material is dried, it is placed in a vacuum chamber where the water is removed. The process is used for many types of food, including fruits, vegetables, and meats.

**Immune lysins** This is a term used in serology to designate an antibody that in the presence of complement and cofactors such as Mg (magnesium ion) and Ca<sup>++</sup> (calcium ion) will disrupt a particular type of cell with the release of some of its constituents. This action is in accord with the principles of serologic specificity and is to be distinguished from the more general actions of other lytic chemicals. Immune lysins are also classified according to the general class of cell attacked. Hemolysins are antibodies lysing erythrocytes while bacteriolysins cause the lysis of bacterial cells. Hemolysins against various foreign erythrocytes occur normally in many sera. The Forssman and other heterophile antibodies and the blood group isoantibodies constitute special instances. High titers of hemolysins may also be produced by immunization with erythrocytes and rabbit antibody against sheep erythrocytes is an important laboratory reagent. The so-called amboceptor in complement fixation tests. For example, sheep erythrocytes injected into a rabbit produce antibodies in the rabbit against the sheep red blood cells. The lysis of erythrocytes releases hemoglobin which may be quantitated by eye or by a colorimeter. See ANTIBODY ANTIGEN COMPLEMENT (SERUM) COMPLEMENT FIXATION TEST HEMOGLOBIN HETEROPHIL ANTIGEN LYTIC REACTION

**Pfeiffer reaction** This is an example of a bacteriolytic reaction carried out with gram-negative bacteria such as cholera vibrios which are especially susceptible to the lytic action of specific antibody complement Mg and Ca. This reaction may be carried out in vivo (Pfeiffer's system) or in vitro and is a valuable aid in diagnosis. An analogous reaction is given by the spirochetes of relapsing fever. Although demonstrable in instances of bacteriolysis occurs it is not clear whether all the bactericidal actions of antibody and complement are necessarily preceded by lysis. See CHOLERA VIBRIO [HPT]

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Lysine



tem of the standard Wassermann test for syphilis as all other complement fixation reactions. If this example is result in the release of cellular material from the medium the reaction may be followed by usual spectrophotometric estimation of the decreased turbidity or the increased amount of the medium due to the free hemoglobin. By appropriate choice of graph papers and coordinates the entire set of hemolysis curves a range of

reagent concentrations may be predicted from two or more accurate measurements in the intermediate range. As outlined by M. M. Mayer and his associates the mechanism of the lytic reaction of red cells is a complex multi-stepped one.

[1187]

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